

The Social Studies

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Continuing The Historical Outlook

DECEMBER, 1951

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As the Editor Sees it

Every once in a while something occurs to make us stop and look back at our own high school days. Many things we knew then would still be found today in our modern schools, only slightly altered. A generation has, in many instances, affected only slightly the subject matter, the teaching materials and methods, the classroom furniture and even the character of instructors. There is one essential factor in the scene, though, that has undergone a very real and significant change. That factor is the student body.

It is often claimed by the older generation that the present-day adolescent is careless and care-free, cynical and sinful, without respect for any of the old-time virtues. He or she is addicted to comic books, TV westerns, crooners and hot-rod driving; there is no fondness for *Silas Marner*, the poetry of John Greenleaf Whittier or the orations of Edmund Burke. Certainly some of these are valid charges. But there is another side to the picture. Today's youngsters are realists; they have a knowledge of the world around them that their counterparts of a quarter-century ago never had. What did we know of practical politics, of current economic conditions, of international problems, of the realities of life in general? We lived in a sort of romantic dream world, most of us, insulated from life by our parents, our teachers and the pages of *St. Nicholas*, *The Youth's Companion*, and the *Rover Boys*. It was a happy existence, but we were often thrown out into a society that we knew very little about. Nor had we had much practical experience in solving our own problems; the older high school was seldom a democratic institution.

With all their obvious weaknesses, today's students are more mature, more worldly-wise, and far better informed about life than we ever were at their age. They are thoroughly aware, for one thing, that at 16 or 17 they are already important persons. The military services are just ahead of them, the colleges are courting them and well-paid employment

awaits them almost at once. They are not children as we were at 17; the world needs them young. Though the average age of the population is higher, we need youth for serious business today, and the youngsters are well aware of it.

The really antiquated school today is the one that refuses to recognize that this generation of youth is comparatively adult and should be treated accordingly. Let us not be deceived by the surface appearances. They are still young and have the joys and pains of youth, but they are grown-up too. They are more capable than we ever were of detecting the sham, the fraudulent, the unjust and the hypocritical; they know when they are being given less than their due and they resent it. The terrifying and sobering realities of life in the last fifteen years have produced a generation of young people who may be cynics, fatalists or even delinquents, but who are certainly not innocent of or oblivious to the facts of life. Since this is so, it is clearly the high school's duty to capitalize on the situation. Not only does it call for a new kind of curriculum, as most schools recognize, but it demands an enlightened attitude toward the student body as individuals. As young adults, instead of older children, they deserve and can properly take a real and important part in the conduct of the school.

We adults who have the ultimate responsibility for the schools have too often been afraid to take the student body into our confidence on school policy and problems. We are reluctant to leave the safe tower of our superior experience and authority and talk frankly with youngsters, lest they take advantage of us. It is a groundless fear. Teen-agers may be as unwilling as are many of their parents to accept responsibility, but they will speak frankly and seriously about school affairs if invited to, and having been sincerely consulted, they will accept our decisions in much better grace. Our problems can be materially lightened by letting our students help solve them.

The Social Studies

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The English Character

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There is nothing stagnant about national character. It continues to emerge in different forms to meet new emergencies and to adapt itself to shifting social and economic forces. With the image of Sir Alexander Cadogan and Sir Stafford Cripps before our eyes, it is hard to believe that up until the 19th century the English were considered a lighthearted people. Yet as far back as 1140, Pope Eugenius III remarked on the "levity" of the English. Wycliffe, in another age, was impressed by their inconstancy. A commentator at the time of Charles II celebrated their fickle nature, a view that was echoed by French visitors throughout the 18th century and which reached a point of condemnation when the fickleness, which can be charming, turned into the licentiousness of the Regency. French visitors, reporting on the English, scurried back to France after doing battle with the fifty thousand London prostitutes that haunted the streets and alleys of the capital. A triumph of English character, in a way, because the other alternative during the early 19th century was crawling on all fours in the coal mines. With this choice in mind, at least fifty thousand women opted for easier work and shorter hours.

The cavalier Englishman of wit and swagger came of the aristocracy and by virtue of his position in society held the reins of government right into the Industrial Revolution. He was still in control of them when, with the rising power of the industrial middle class, the English reputation for lightheartedness started to change. We begin to hear of a tena-

cious John Bull holding a leashed bulldog that is hanging on to the seat of Napoleon's breeches. The cartoonist stereotype is dressed for the traditional fox-hunt, but the face of John Bull is solid middle class, that of a mill owner most likely, a man who knows the price of things and who keeps a careful eye on his buckram ledgers. Mr. Pickwick, who is also a character in this formative period, seems to combine something of the merchant mixed with the older qualities of the country gentleman. He is a nostalgic symbol of Merrie England (and remains one even today) but he has no roots in the rapidly urbanized England of smoke-stack, slag heap and debtor's prison.

When we talk of national character we do not necessarily mean the character of a mathematically average Englishman. We mean, rather, the traits and social customs of the ruling class who set the standards of behavior for society as a whole. The costermonger crying his wares in a London street will hardly behave like a member of the upper class, but he will recognize and acknowledge the superior habits of his "betters." He will be subtly guided in his everyday affairs to pay tribute to these standards of conduct. Out of respect and loyalty to the ideals of his "betters," he may sooner be convinced to lay down his life for the defense of the social status than for the improvement in livelihood of his fellow costermongers. The last bastions in the defense of privilege in England, Sir James Barrie once said, will not be manned by the aristocrats. They will be in charge of the servants.

These remarks are apt to fall on skeptical ears today, and rightly so. The English character at this very moment is in a state of flux.

For the first time in the history of England, the government is not in control of the privileged classes. The Colonel Blimps who returned from Singapore and Port Said may still be writing letters to the *London Times*. Their days seem to be numbered and their complaints will soon cease because their temperaments belong to an England that no longer exists. The economic revolution that has hobbled England must produce a social revolution within the next generation; assuming, of course, that the welfare state will continue regardless of which party triumphs. The *pukka sahib* has retired on a pension. The lords and ladies are being slowly eaten up by the graduated income tax which takes 44 per cent of their wealth. The merchants find the markets of the world increasingly competitive while their labor costs cannot be reduced because of trade union policy adopted by the trade union government.

The shift of economic power to the common people may mean the emergence of a different type of English character. A new set of descriptive adjectives may have to be employed to describe the typical Englishman of 1975. It will not be, we venture to guess, the somewhat confused, umbrella-carrying gentleman who tried so hard to express his well-meaning sentiments while carrying hot pebbles in his mouth. It will not be the intrepid empire builder, holding the Union Jack in one hand and a Bible in the other, and dreaming of a Cape-to-Cairo railroad (the Americans will have flown in weeks before). "Fair Shares for All," the present Labor program, may mean a society in which the school tie will have to compete with the scholarship student from the free secondary schools. In time, even the foreign service may evolve a type whose greatest bid to distinction will be their golf scores rather than their attendance at Harrow, Eton and Winchester. The fumbling character in *Punch* is being replaced by the labor union politician. The English type, for better or worse, will be an amalgam of millions of decent and law-abiding people, rather than the representative of the privileged few. Much will be lost, no doubt, much that is noble and good and worthy of emulation. The distinguished con-

tributions of the upper classes to the political character of England must never be gainsaid. They have not only taken privileges,—they have accepted, unlike the 18th century French aristocracy, the duties and obligations of citizens.

But the age of privilege seems to be drawing to an end. Labor keeps on in the saddle with some sort of Fabian socialism for its destination. Psychologically, the common people, in looking for elite models of social behavior, may turn away from their Tory masters. Instead, they may recreate the character of the English in their own image, with a passing salute to their "betters." Into this image will go a freer social system, less stratified and more equalitarian. It will be a system that guarantees medical care and a minimum diet for the many, especially for the children, and will demonstrate the power of calories to condition character. The quasi-hereditary group who ran the permanent civil service are contending with the graduates of the free secondary schools for the jobs that carry social position. Whatever the shape of English character in the next generation, we can depend on reading in the *Times* numerous letters recalling the greatness of Old England and lamenting bitterly the New Englishman.

How has geography conditioned British character? Unlike insular England, the inhabitants of most of Europe live surrounded by an exposed land frontier that is open to invasion. Such people are disposed to acknowledge more easily the need of a strong executive and they resign themselves more readily to a tyrannical government. They do not write books "On Liberty" or "On Natural Rights" and their legal codes do not say that a man is innocent until proven guilty. All legal benefits of doubt are usually resolved by throwing the suspect into prison while probing his innocence. This legal line is followed with few modifications in most of Europe. Even in France the *Droit administratif* can ride roughshod over the glorious phrases of the Rights of Man. Those bits of police brutality that René Clair would take pleasure in revealing must have brought a touch of sad recognition to a lot of Frenchmen who had tangled with the *Droit administratif*. The European bows to the law but he does not embrace it. The agents of the law are his

enemies. He has some vile names for them and they know it. In France and most of central Europe the constant prohibitions put on the citizen must indicate a tendency of non-compliance, or else, why keep on warning people to obey the law?

The English character when confronted by a law reacts differently. The feeling is that the law represents a communal understanding that has grown out of a felt need for regulation designed to facilitate social intercourse. There being no fear of invasion as long as Britannia ruled the waves, the Englishman had plenty of time to evolve a legal system based on personal liberty and civil rights. It is not an administrative law pounding away at personal prohibitions, but a protective law upholding the sanctity of the home and the inviolability of the individual. It has had the consent of the public. It is the *common law*. And the Englishman's attitude is to put himself at the disposal of the authorities to enforce the law. The action of the police reciprocates this trust. Basic forms protect the dignity of the prisoner, who must be handled as an innocent man until convicted by a trial jury. The complicated machinery begun in the twelfth century, after the Norman conquest, was one of gradual development, meeting the needs of a community that was, in the eyes of the English, placed by God on an island fortress. The Englishman's character has reflected the libertarian atmosphere of England. Not a little of his arrogance while traveling on the Continent in the years before austerity was attributed to this feeling of "superiority" when he compared himself to the decree-ridden people who were at the beck and call of demanding officialdom. The Englishman's opinion of himself swelled visibly when Frenchmen like Voltaire and Montesquieu exalted English liberty in their books. When the self-appreciation was married to the phenomenal prosperity of the Industrial Revolution, the Englishman's pride turned to condescension for those who had the misfortune of being born elsewhere. He further discovered that his airs paid a dividend in the superior service that he got for his money. It is a testimony to his pragmatic psychology that he quickly learned to exploit his "superiority" on his imperial expeditions in the 19th century, and so prevailed on the simple to regard his

arrogance as the necessary demands of some unfathomed god. A test of the efficiency of the education of a public-school graduate even today, would be the Englishman's ability to command service. The public-school manner may still pay off greater dividends than the public-school intellect, (usually measured in sordid grades that had better be concealed as a matter of good form). *Manner Makyth Man*, says an Oxford motto, a practical saw originated by a man of experience. The ability to command, in which the Englishman has shown unusual aptitude, is an art that grows out of strong character. It must have its origins in self-confidence. This is an outstanding trait in the English. They have so little doubt about themselves that they have become the greatest practitioners of understatement, a sure sign of profound self-esteem.

The English reputation for perfidiousness in foreign relations can also be explained on the grounds of policy dictated by her insular position. On the one hand, to use Sir Ernest Barker's dichotomy, she is in close and vital contact with the Continent. On the other, she is not a physical part of it, nor is she drawn into the "fiery crucible" of European power politics. She has sought to *influence* the Continent from her lordly island because her ramified commerce in Europe required that she be sensitive to the slightest storm warnings in order to protect her interests. This attitude crystallized in the balance of power policy of throwing her weight when her interests were threatened.

Now this policy, says Sir Ernest, has hardly made England an attractive partner in the eyes of her neighbors. Its postulate has been a position of independence even while fighting with allies. It meant changing alliances when the balance tipped. Hence the reputation for inconstancy and the poetic allusion to "perfidious Albion" (and the not so poetic remarks of those who told you that England in the last war was prepared to defend Europe to the last Frenchman, or last American). The French especially have been bitter on the subject of English hypocrisy. And the envy stemmed from the natural frontiers of the English, an advantage denied to the rest of the continent.

The personal hypocrisy of the English is another story. In contrast to the Latins, who enjoy their emotions and have a jolly time

doing it, the English make it a matter of good form to suppress their feelings. They are taught to put up a facade of equanimity in the course of the day's petty crises, with a special brand of good-humored *sang froid* when the bombs start bursting next door. The origin of this behavior can be sought in the peculiar code of gentlemanly conduct that has been taught the last hundred years in the post-Arnold public schools of England. These schools became the melting pots in which the children of the newly rich, who had made their money from the Industrial Revolution, mixed freely with the sons of the landed gentry. The function of the school was to board and instruct the little beasts in the classics and to develop their characters by means of sports, high Christian ethics, corporal punishment, upper-form privileges and a proper appreciation of things that are "done" and "not done." Five years later, the young graduate of eighteen wearing the old school tie and speaking with the proper accent, applied to Oxford or Cambridge to finish off the education of a gentleman. Along the byways of learning, the young gentleman also managed to pick up a fantastic amount of extra-curricular vice that never squared with the high Christian ethics. Nevertheless, the public-school products did take away with them a certain stoical and diffident attitude toward success or failure. They had an enormous respect for team work and for fair play on the playing field. They learned as school boys how to conceal their emotions while being fagged and bullied. And they were reminded by their masters that they were to be regarded as officers, born to command, when they left the university, with the privileges and duties that became their station in life.

The public school, says D. W. Brogan, turned out "a unified class, whose education would give a common background more important than the bias given by professional education or experience, so that the soldier or parson or squire would have in common links of habit and of memory, that would hold them together, make it possible for them to understand one another, keep their qualities within a common family tradition." This "unified class" that Brogan mentions is not without its streak of pharisaism and snobbery. Educational exclusiveness, supported by economic privilege, have in the

past divided the people of England so that the upper and middle class took almost no interest in the life of the common man. Even among their own kind, the fear of losing social standing made the privileged very aloof, as for example, the dramatic *mise-en-scène* when two Englishmen were confronted accidentally in some public conveyance. Neither talked for fear of losing caste. The casual, impromptu conversation would be unknown until some neutral party interceded with the proper introductions to clarify the social standing of the two. Such conduct may have been correct behavior from the public-school standpoint; from the universal view point it was a denial of a common humanity. It made a Dutch commentator on English manners so annoyed that he named his book *The English; Are They Human?* According to G. J. Renier, "The English go through life as though each of its moments were part of a prescribed and solemn ritual . . . which does not necessarily imply its solemn performance. . . . Most English people are prepared to inflict severe social punishment upon the man who speaks to another man without having gone through the ritual of introduction. The person to whom somebody is introduced must produce a slight smile and pronounce the words 'How do you do?' . . . They should not be answered by a human 'Very well, thank you.' . . . It is laid down in the English ritual that a stranger does not exist. The answer to the ceremonial 'How do you do?' is therefore an equally ritualistic 'How do you do?'" This ritual, to bring Mr. Renier's remarks up to date, was severely modified during the last war. Time and again comments were made, mostly favorable, that the bombings broke down social reserve. On the brink of disaster, Englishmen were noticed exchanging amenities on the war without an introduction.

Social stratification has its origin in the aristocracy and the Royal Family. These compose Society at the apex of a triangle of social strata and their activities are still the reading fare of the millions of Englishmen beyond the pale of Society. The English, say the good books written by the experts, have never been equalitarians, the way they have been libertarians. The aristocratic tradition and the age of the monarchy have inculcated in them an appreciation of the importance of breeding in the pro-

duction of excellence. They accept the truths of heredity as being applicable both to the old-line families and to the breeding of horses, despite the fact that the really old aristocratic houses are very few and the average peerage holder can't go back more than a hundred years before he strikes a brewer, banker or successful merchant. Be that as it may, the English have made a religion of Society. Society represents the living tradition, the continuation of the glory and greatness of their island. The aristocracy, for its part, has accepted the social responsibility that goes with the exalted position. In the many political crises that have periodically racked England, the privileged have capitulated gracefully, though reluctantly. They have not formed cabals to take over the government by revolution. In contemporary times they have never collaborated as a class with the Moseley lunatics. In time of crisis there has never been a question that they would toe the mark and cooperate and pay their taxes because they are, after all, the richest class in the realm. And as a class they have given their sons to the service of the state, to parliament and to the permanent civil service because they have felt that privilege entails obligation to the nation as a whole. All this has been appreciated by the common man, who hardly responded to the class bitterness of the Marxist propagandist.

Another force that unites the English and offsets the extraordinary lack of social democracy, is the part played by sports. Horse-racing brings together both rich and poor, who have the joint privilege of losing to the book-makers. There is a fever of betting going on in football pools and dog racing. The crowds are enormous and the shouts and murmurs can match any American sporting event of like magnitude. The whole business is sanctified by tradition, which makes a bit of a racket quite the thing to do. The football challenges, like the Derby, are considered principally as great public festivals for the common folk who set their own chummy social tone, in contrast, say, with the well-behaved crowd at a cricket test match.

The late Harold Laski (quoted in Brogan, *The English People*, footnote, p. 256) once distinguished between national character and national behavior. Character, he said, is a

"constant," while behavior is "the expression of impulses conditioned by historical circumstances." If we were to use this classification, we would place English law, religion (a subject that we have not considered at all in this paper), history and literature in the "constant" group, all duly modified by the physical factors of geography, climate and natural resources. The public-school phenomenon may have to be considered a "behavior" factor because, unlike the common law, its influence is comparatively recent. Its importance is already passing and its distinction may be eclipsed just as soon as the free secondary schools produce their quota of brilliant students.

What shall we say of the insular factor in English character? It used to play a dominating role in English history but now the Channel has lost its meaning as a natural frontier. The resources that made England the storekeeper of the world are in sharp decline. Industrial England with her teeming cities faces the stiffest competition from countries blessed with the bounties necessary in an oil and atom age. Can the English factory solve its dilemma or must Englishmen migrate to the dominions? Again, will the aristocratic tradition and its wake of snobbery, be still a "constant" fifty years from now, assuming, of course, that the tax program will continue to level incomes in the name of the welfare state? The Royal Family may remain after Society deteriorates, on the Scandinavian style, but what of the great estates upon which the law of primogeniture depends to continue the family tradition of the aristocracy? Many of these "constants" will be slowly changed because the historic impulses are not just temporary. The forces of history grind small and it will take great strength of character, English character, to maintain the fine qualities that have made England and the English people the most influential in the modern world.

FROM THE BOUND FILES

"For more than a century we have brought up American children to hate England, and this has led us to slur over the history of those foundations of our liberty which rest upon English soil."—Lucius B. Swift (*Hist. Teachers Mag.*, Jan., 1918)

How we can Make the Teaching of Current Events Interesting and Effective

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The term "Current Events" is used to designate contemporary developments in politics, literature, science, and all other fields of human interest. It is probable, however, that a great majority of the items that appear in the newspapers and magazines deal with materials that, by common consent, fall within the social studies. The activities of governments, the transactions of banks and business establishments, reports on crime, unemployment, and strikes, and the activities of prominent people are examples of the type of materials that fill current publications. All of these belong more or less directly to the social studies. Because of this fact the social studies teacher has come to assume the responsibility of dealing with such matters. The mathematics teacher may not need to feel apologetic if he has no information concerning the latest developments in Europe or the latest decision of the Supreme Court, but the social studies teacher would feel embarrassed if he did not know enough about these items to express an opinion. While the social studies teacher thus willingly accepts the responsibility for keeping informed about Current Events and assumes the obligation of teaching them in the schools, he need feel no hesitation in admitting his ignorance of current developments in Science, Literature, and Art. In other words, he can justly be expected to be well informed concerning contemporary events in his own field.

The frequency with which Current Events is taught in the schools has increased markedly since the First World War. More than half the state courses of study recommend that it be taught in both elementary and secondary schools. Even in those schools in which it has not achieved formal recognition, it receives much attention in class and in student clubs. While the variation in grade placement, allot-

ment of time and method of presentation, makes any statistical summary inadequate, all such summaries agree in showing the extensive development in recent years.

The final and proper place for Current Events in the schools has by no means been determined. Opinions on this question vary from the uncritical endorsement of the teaching of any current topic to a complete denial of the value of such topics. Perhaps the clearest viewpoint respecting Current Events in schools is the one which holds it should be studied directly, regularly, and frequently. A second viewpoint we often get is the one that regards Current Events as an aid to learning about the past. According to this view, it is a mere stepping-stone to an understanding of the more significant and fundamental events of the past. This, I believe, is a real value. If the teacher thinks that some contemporary event would facilitate his teaching the Second Punic War, he would use it, not to place the event in a clearer light, but to clarify the Second Punic War. A third viewpoint is one that regards the understanding of current phenomena as an ultimate objective. Contemporary events might not furnish the contents; but, rather, an understanding of them would furnish the measure of achievement. An understanding of the gold standard, of a reciprocity treaty, or a court decision is the objective of instruction. The achievement of this objective may involve far more materials than are furnished in the day's news, but Current Events may well be used as motivating materials. A contemporary event would thus throw light upon past events and situations, and the resultant understanding of the past would in turn throw additional light upon the present situation. For example, the class that is studying the finance of the French Revolution may have some idea of what a farm

mortgage is. This understanding may help it to see the principle on which "assignats" were issued. A knowledge of the eventual outcome of the use of assignats might teach the lack of wisdom in buying a mortgage that represents more than 100% of the value of the property. Furthermore, some knowledge of election districts will illuminate one's study of the situation that gave rise to the Reform Bill of 1832. A little knowledge of the situation of 1832 will enrich one's understanding of current practices in redistricting and gerrymandering. Each of these viewpoints leads to certain beliefs as to how Current Events should be treated in schools.

The selection of suitable current topics for discussion drawn from the vast mass of available material is another problem facing the social studies teacher emphasizing Current Events. A spectacular divorce case, a gruesome murder, a disastrous plane wreck, the unconventional activities of a prominent artist, the diet and daily program of a prizefighter, and the newest styles in spring hats are examples of the type of material that occupies generous space in our newspapers and magazines. They record the trivial and confusing, as well as the significant and illuminating. Availability, although a conditioning factor, cannot be used as a criterion for suitability. Contemporary emphasis, although significant, cannot be accepted as an entirely valid criterion. Nor are space allotment, number of repetitions, and the size of headlines synonymous with significance. But as the teacher views Current Events primarily as furnishing motivating devices, he will need no criterion other than success. If a contemporary event is the latest manifestation of a continuing struggle, it has social and educational significance. A current strike is a good illustration of the continuing struggle between capital and labor. The account of a train wreck may illustrate a temporary failure in the development of man's control over mechanisms.

The Current Events that are of the same kind as events which had significance in the past have significance for the present. Past significance can be tested by referring to the curriculum. Thus one may conclude that the current events that deserve attention in the school are those that are related to the curriculum.

The teaching of Current Events will naturally involve the problem of dealing with controversial issues. "Controversial Issues" should be interpreted to include those unsolved problems of which society is more or less conscious. The successful teaching of current controversial topics, such as evolution, sex information, socialism, and pacifism requires a judicious compound of scholarship, common sense, tact, courage, caution and pedagogical skill. Social progress will result from impartial and disinterested study and discussion of unsolved issues. The schools are the more appropriate and better qualified sponsor for handling these problems. Thus the teacher who can skillfully and judiciously assist the students to reach intelligent attitudes and decisions on controversial issues is performing not only an educational, but a social function of great significance.

Treating this subject more specifically and practically, let us direct some thought to actual procedures in teaching Current Events. Here we have a variety of methods and procedures; each teacher should adopt those that appeal to him as most practicable.

1. *Incidental Method.* No very definite plans are made and no sustained program is carried out. According to this method the teacher is likely to do most of the work.

2. *Systematic Correlation.* A definite plan set forth by the teacher to relate Current Events and the course content. The pupils are instructed to bring clippings, pictures and articles, and to report on them in the class. Reports are made whenever pertinent materials are found. Directions as to selection of material usually are given. The result will be an enrichment of both the course and Current Events.

3. *Textbook Method.* This plan calls for the regular and systematic study of a selected magazine, copies being available to all pupils.

4. *Topical Method.* According to this plan the pupils study Current Events under a few designated headings, such as national politics, foreign relations, commerce, etc. Individuals or committees may be assigned to particular topics. Here pupils must have access either at home or in the school library to newspapers and a number of magazines.

5. *Problem Method.* This method is similar to that of the topical except that the topic is presented in the form of a problem or issue confronting society. The advantage of this method over the topical method is that the pupils here are motivated to watch for the outcome in the news and to compare it with other possible solutions. It is a more mature development and requires very skillful leadership.

6. *Project Method.* This method may assume any of several forms. The class may carry through their project by organizing a debating society, a legislature, a forum, a parliament, a court, or a conference; or it may undertake to maintain a bulletin board, edit a newspaper, make an encyclopedia, conduct pretended radio broadcasts, draw cartoons, dramatize events, make note books, conduct a question box, manage excursions or play games relative to the topics under discussion. Magazines and newspapers are, of course, necessary for the successful carrying out of any of those projects. Also, it must be borne in mind that the project method requires very skillful handling by an experienced teacher, and a school where the

administration is sympathetic to an activity program.

7. *Laboratory Method.* This plan involves the reading and utilization of the materials under the supervision of the teacher. Most of the time is likely to be spent in acquiring information about current happenings although there is no reason why the class should not also carry out one of the projects indicated above. The emphasis in this method is upon the supply of maps, pictures, folders, articles, newspapers, and books. Emphasis is also placed on the study of these articles.

8. *Socialized Recitation.* This procedure involves the leadership of the pupils in the management of the Current Events programs. In practice they usually organize the class and give their programs according to parliamentary law. They may also adopt other projects and procedures.

I cannot say that any one of these 8 procedures is best. My recommendation is that one or a combination of methods be used, whichever the individual teacher finds most practicable in his particular set-up.

“The Constitution is What the Judges Say it is”

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“The makers of the American Constitution neither began nor finished their work in the summer of 1787. Their ancestors began it at Runnymede.”¹ Their descendents continue its fabrication through interpretation and the application of Constitutional principles to the changes and needs of each succeeding generation. To an American, the Constitution is more than an inert, impersonal political document. It is a living symbol of all that the American concept of democracy means—freedom, happiness, rights, opportunities, socio-political responsibilities. Because he failed to grasp this spirit, a cynical European once remarked, “Not having a king to venerate, the American people bestow their worship upon that scrap of paper which they call their Constitution.”

FEDERAL JURISTS ARE SOCIO-LEGAL PHILOSOPHERS

Our federal judges are the architects of the Constitution. Life and meaning have been breathed into its frequently “tortured and twisted” words and phrases by the federal judiciary in the years since the Constitution was written. It has been made increasingly responsive to the interests and needs of the people and the nation. The higher federal courts are concerned with more than the technical rules of legal procedure and practice. The justices and judges on these tribunals are legal philosophers, and more. Their opinions vitally affect the welfare and happiness of our people, singly and collectively. A depth of human

understanding and a profound appreciation of social purposes and needs in a democratic state are essential. Justice cannot be construed in the narrow legal sense. The broader and fundamental elements of social, economic, and political justice as they concern both the individual and society must be paramount.

The opinions of the higher federal courts, more often than not, are more than monuments of cold legal reasoning; they embrace more than an exposition of the fundamental law of the nation; they embody the social and economic philosophy of America's legal statesmen. True, the courts must ascertain the facts in each case and reduce them to consistent legal reasoning. But each case involves a human being or a congregation of human beings. The facts must be interpreted against a framework of human and social meanings and values. There must be understanding, feeling, justice. Through the courts, the people have come to realize that the "government may be relied on to make good any moral obligation that rests upon it."² To try to strike a balance in the scales of justice with a proper synthesis of laws, precedents, constitutional constructions, ethical purposes, general social welfare, and individual rights, places on the courts a responsibility that is at once delicate and herculean. The courts operate in a maelstrom of continuously conflicting cross-currents of social forces.

It is axiomatic with us that

... our written constitution ... must be held to guarantee not particular forms of procedure, but the very substance of individual rights to life, liberty, and property.³

The ends of social justice are achieved through a process by which every step is examined in the light of the principles which are our inheritance as a free people. ... Our relations with each other, to the society of which we are a part, to the governments, Federal and State, which are the organs of that society, come to judicial test, as far removed from the intrusions of artifice, selfishness and caprice as any test can be. The Supreme Court is the embodiment of this conception of our law, the exemplar of its application, and the assurance that in the complexities of an extraordinarily expanded life, we have not

forgotten the ancient faith by which we have pledged ourselves to render to each other his due,—a faith which alone makes it possible to look to the coming years with confidence as well as hope.⁴

To arbitrate and finely balance the ebb and flow of the multitudinous and multifarious impingements of national and world-wide social, economic and political forces; to achieve the fundamental and ultimate purposes of the Constitution and our democratic system, "casts the Court as the most philosophical of our political departments."⁵ But the courts are not impersonal entities. They are made up of individuals who have been and are now subject to the same impacts of social stresses and strains as their fellow citizens. It is well to remember that judges in our courts are only human. After all, they have not lived and have not given their judgments in a social vacuum.

THE JUDGES DIFFER: IN DEGREE, NOT IN PRINCIPLE

Differences among federal judges in many cases involving principles of social control have been essentially differences of degree, and not of direction in judicial thinking. Federal jurists today seem to place less reliance upon legal technics and mechanics than upon their own role as socio-legal philosophers. Cleavages between judges and justices have frequently occurred within a framework of general agreement on fundamentals of social theory. This trend has been most marked in recent decades. The degree of judicial inclination in a legal controversy may be great or small, but it is there. Oftentimes the magnitude of legal differences is less important than the fact that differences exist. Judicial opinions must be decided in favor of one or the other of the litigants. There can be no middle ground, no compromise. "One conception or the other must yield."⁶ It is the task and the aim of the courts, in the interest of justice, to try to "reconcile two rights in order to prevent either from destroying the other."⁷

The pivotal point about which the flag salute trials revolved, to cite but one example, was the extent and degree of social control to be exerted.⁸ Each jurist would aver, did so in fact or effect, that the individual should have a large measure of freedom from restraint in matters

social, political, and economic, but that he should be restrained when his activities interfered with the rights and general welfare of other persons or groups. It was the extent of the interference, and the amount of restraint to be invoked as a consequence thereof, over which the jurists disagreed. Freedom which ignores the rights of the group degenerates into anarchy; and conversely, authority which is heedless of the individual eventuates in autocracy. The problem, then, is to try to discover the proper emphasis which should be placed on each of these bi-polar elements. A reconciliation of the dualism of individual and social rights and responsibilities is impossible to achieve in court decisions, which of necessity must be decided one way or the other. The differences of opinion in the courts have often had their genesis in the inability of those bodies to fix the line that differentiates the respective rights from corollary responsibilities. A balance between the rights and welfare of the individual on the one hand, and those of society on the other is often impossible in a legal controversy. What can be hoped for is that a fluid middle-of-the-road pattern may result as a consequence of numerous court decisions and actions.

COMMON SENSE AND JUSTICE

Mr. Justice Stone observed that we should "place emphasis on the orderly administration of justice, rather than on the blind adherence to conflicting precedents."⁹ What a judge

... thinks ought to be, what he wants to see happen—in other words, his values and his notions of sound and desirable social policy—are bound to play a large part in influencing his choice or in repudiation of the factors upon which a claim of probability or foreseeability leading to liability may be created. And if the judge's function is to do justice, this after all, is no more than we should expect.¹⁰

The words of Mr. Justice Bradley written in 1872 illustrate the spirit in which the courts have approached many cases and the manner in which they arrived at their decisions.

It would be strange, indeed, if men's possessions could be disturbed by the burning of a courthouse, or the loss, destruction, or theft of a public record, when

evidence . . . could be supplied to show that the acts upon which their titles depended had been duly performed by the proper public officers . . . ¹¹

Justice Stone believed we (should) "place emphasis on the orderly administration of justice, rather than on blind adherence to conflicting precedents. . . ." ¹² Mr. Justice Brewer¹³ speaking for the Supreme Court before the turn of the century declared the jurists would not "pronounce . . . (bonds) invalid on such technical and trivial grounds." In an Iowa case Judge Sanborn made a similar observation: "The objection is too technical and hypercritical for serious consideration."¹⁴ And in *Heydenfeldt v. Daney*¹⁵ the court stated that "it is better always to adhere to a plain common sense interpretation of the words of a statute, than to apply to them refined and technical rules of grammatical construction." The court's interpretation in another case, "though seemingly contrary to the letter of the statute, is within its reason and spirit. It accords with a wise public policy" ¹⁶

THE CONSTITUTION IS

WHAT THE JUDGES SAY IT IS

"We are under the Constitution, but the Constitution is what the judges say it is"¹⁷ declared the great Chief Justice Hughes some years before he became a member of the Supreme Court. Years later he supplemented his earlier statement by also declaring that "the Court is the final interpreter of the act of Congress; . . . a federal statute finally means what the Court says it means."¹⁸ "It is one of the fictions of juristic philosophy that the courts do not alter constitutions."¹⁹ One would be naive, indeed, to believe "they only interpret them," for to interpret is to give new meaning; to give new meaning is to alter; and to alter or change is to create. And to create is to legislate and perhaps to administer. The bland acceptance of the legal theory that the courts only interpret and do not legislate impelled Justice Holmes to blurt out impatiently that the courts "do and must legislate."

THE INFLUENCE OF A SINGLE DECISION

The impact of one decision may, and probably does, affect much more current and future legislation than the statute or act involved in the case on which a ruling is made. A judicial

opinion concerning a Congressional Act may have widespread implications and may exert considerable influence in directing the course of future legislation as the result of action taken by the court. Similarly, the invalidation of the law of a state may render void or alter the trend of like legislation in other states. More important, perhaps, is the fact that years or even decades may be lost in achieving desired and desirable social and economic reforms through legislation.

"The law is conservative. When precedents have been set and built upon, it is difficult to wreck them and rebuild."²⁰

When the Court announces a rule that strikes down a law . . . it binds itself and its successors and all inferior courts and future judges to decide similar cases by like logic. It not only limits the judgment of other judges, but, so long as the rule stands, it destroys the discretion even of the men who made it.²¹

CHANGING SOCIAL CONDITIONS

REQUIRE NEW REMEDIES

Many of the fundamental principles of constitutional jurisprudence were defined and promulgated at an early date in our judicial history. The fault lies not in the fact that the principles and interpretations are still followed, but rather in the fact that their application often has not been adapted by the courts to changing national and world conditions. The meanings of constitutional guarantees never vary, but the scope of their application must expand or contract to meet the needs of a changing world, or to rectify the misapplication of a rule.²² The court is not averse to reversing itself, sometimes within a few years, as in the flag salute cases,²³ if a constitutional principle or judicial rule appears to have been misapplied.

We are prone to overlook the tremendously difficult and responsible position in which the high federal courts find themselves today. Their

. . . task is to (try) to fit a Constitution framed in 1787, with its overgrowth of amendments, customs, precedents, laws, and treaties, to the constantly changing needs of the twentieth century. . . .

They have had

. . . to take a Constitution steeped in the

philosophy of individual rights, and framed in a spirit which taught that that government is best which governs least, and adjust it to the needs of a day when government is constantly broadening the scope of its activity and enlarging the services and benefits it provides for all the people. It is a task fraught with danger and beset with pitfalls.²⁴

The task of translating the majestic generalities of the Bill of Rights, conceived as part of the pattern of liberal government in the eighteenth century, into concrete restraints on officials dealing with the problems of the twentieth century, is one to disturb self-confidence. These principles grew in soil which also produced a philosophy that the individual was the center of society, that his liberty was attainable through mere absence of governmental restraints, and that government should be entrusted with few controls and only the mildest supervision over men's affairs. We (the courts) must transplant these rights to a soil in which the *laissez-faire* concept of principle of non-interference has withered at least as to economic affairs, and social advancements are increasingly sought through closer integration of society, and through expanded and strengthened governmental controls. These changed conditions often deprive (legal) precedents of reliability.

. . . ²⁵

More than fifty years ago, Mr. Justice Brewer remarked in the *Debs Case* of 1895

. . . that constitutional provisions do not change, but their operation extends to new matters as the modes of business, and habits of life vary with each succeeding generation. . . . ²⁶

Speaking in the same tenor, Mr. Justice Sutherland explained how the court meets changing times and conditions with a document that has seldom been changed literally; said the justice in 1926:

. . . the meaning of Constitutional guarantees never varies, the scope of their application must expand or contract to meet the new and different conditions which are constantly coming within the field of their operation. In a changing world it is

impossible that it should be otherwise . . . elasticity is thus imparted, not to the meaning, but to the application of constitutional principles, statutes, or ordinances . . . ²⁷

Justice Roberts opined that "What is critical or urgent changes with the times . . . the concept of general welfare (is not) static."²⁸ Chief Justice Hughes believed that

. . . changing social conditions require new remedies, (as the novel exercise of the police power) to care for both social and individual interests. (He also said that) . . . toward the older liberalism of the eighteenth century, which was embodied in the Bill of Rights, the Court has generally been sympathetic, but it has been cold to social reform and economic control when attempted by twentieth century liberalism.²⁹

Adjustments have been made and probably will continue to be made because, "In general, law cannot depart from ethical custom or lag far behind it"; and "judges are not required to close their eyes to the facts of life."³⁰ The Constitution must "be adapted to the various crises in human affairs."³¹ The great Chief Justice John Marshall declared prophetically concerning the Supreme Court of his day, that it

. . . never sought to enlarge the judicial power beyond its proper bounds, nor feared to carry it to the fullest extent that duty required . . . the vital need is not an alteration of our fundamental law but an increasingly enlightened view in reference to it . . . ; means must be found to adapt our legal forms and our judicial interpretations to the actual present national needs of the largest progressive democracy in the modern world.

¹ William Bennett Munro. *The Makers of the Unwritten Constitution*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930. p. 2.

² *Curtner v. United States*, 149 U.S. 622, 37 L.Ed. 890. California, 1893.

³ *Hurtado v. California*, 110 U.S. 516, 28 L.Ed. 232. California, 1884.

⁴ Charles Evans Hughes. *The Supreme Court of the United States, Its Foundation, Methods and Achievements*. New York, Columbia University Press, 1928. Pp. 241-42.

⁵ Robert H. Jackson, *The Struggle for Judicial Supremacy; A Study of a Crisis in American Power Politics*. New York, Alfred A. Knopf, 1941. p. 312.

⁶ *Minersville v. Gobitis*, 108 F. 2d. 683. Pennsylvania, 1939.

⁷ *Minersville v. Gobitis*, 310 U.S. 586, 84 L.Ed. 1375. Pennsylvania, 1940.

⁸ *Minersville v. Gobitis*, 310 U.S. 586, 84 L.Ed. 1375. Pennsylvania, 1940. *West Virginia State Board of Education v. Barnette*. 319 U.S. 624, 87 L.Ed. 1628. West Virginia, 1943.

⁹ *Burnet v. Coronado Oil and Gas Company*, 285 U.S. 393, 76 L.Ed. 815. Oklahoma, 1932.

¹⁰ Judge Clark in: *Pease v. Sinclair Refining Company*, 104 F. 2d. 183. New York, 1939.

¹¹ *Hedrick v. Hughes*, 82 U.S. 123, 21 L.Ed. 52. Missouri, 1872. See also: *Hyde v. Shine*, 199 U.S. 62, 50 L.Ed. 90. California, 1905. *Monroe Cattle Company v. Becker*, 147 U.S. 47, 37 L.Ed. 72. Texas, 1893.

¹² *Burnet v. Coronado Oil and Gas Company*, 285 U.S. 393, 76 L.Ed. 815. Oklahoma, 1932.

¹³ *Board of Education of Atchison, Kansas v. Dekay*, 148 U.S. 591, 37 L.Ed. 573, Kansas, 1893.

¹⁴ *Independent School District of Sioux City v. Rew*, 111 F. 1. Iowa, 1901.

¹⁵ *Heydenfeldt v. Daney Gold and Silver Mining Company*, 93 U.S. 634, 23 L.Ed. 995. Nevada, 1876.

¹⁶ *Geer v. School District No. 11 in Ouray County*, 111 F. 682. Colorado, 1901.

¹⁷ *Addresses and Papers of Charles Evans Hughes*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 2nd Edition, 1916. p. 186.

¹⁸ Hughes, *ibid.*, p. 229-30.

¹⁹ Munro, *op.cit.*, p. 10.

²⁰ Munro. *op.cit.*, p. 62.

²¹ Jackson, *op. cit.*, p. 295.

²² *Justice Sutherland in Euclid, Ohio v. Ambler Realty Company*, 272 U.S. 365, 71 L.Ed. 303. Ohio, 1926. Justice Brandeis dissent in *Burnet v. Coronado Oil and Gas Company*.

²³ *Minersville v. Gobitis. West Virginia v. Barnette*.

²⁴ Arnold Lein and Merle Fainsod. *The American People and Their Government*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1934. p. 193.

²⁵ *West Virginia State Board of Education v. Barnette*, 319 U.S. 624, 87 L.Ed. 1628. West Virginia, 1943.

²⁶ Debs, *In re Illinois*, 158 U.S. 564, 39 L.Ed. 1092, Illinois, 1895. See also: *Constitution of the United States of America (Revised and annotated)*, Washington, D. C., Supt. of Documents, 1938. p. 60.

²⁷ *Euclid, Ohio v. Ambler Realty Co.*, 272 U.S. 365, 71 L.Ed., 303. Ohio, 1926.

²⁸ *Helvering v. Davis*, 301 U.S., 619, 81 L.Ed. 1307. Massachusetts, 1937.

²⁹ Charles Evans Hughes. *The Supreme Court of the United States*. p. 195.

³⁰ E. C. Elliott and M. M. Chambers. *The Colleges and the Courts*. New York: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1936, p. 1.

³¹ Franklin D. Roosevelt quoted in Robert H. Jackson. *The Struggle for Judicial Supremacy*. *op.cit.*, p. 178.

The Social Scientist in the Atomic Age

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In the post war era the writer, a professor of history in a liberal arts college, has become deeply concerned over the increased popularity of the physical sciences with a corresponding loss of interest in the social studies. It has forcefully brought home to him the realization that man is living in a scientific age in which material values have superseded those of a social and spiritual nature. Many educators are disturbed over this trend which reflects popular thinking because many parents are encouraging their sons and daughters to enter either the business or scientific world. In education students are more interested in the so-called practical subjects, and many educators are pondering serious questions. How long will the present trend continue? Are liberal arts colleges beginning to outlive their usefulness? Such questions necessitate a reexamination and reappraisal of the humanities and social studies.

That people today are living in a scientific age, there can be no doubt. Phenomenal developments have occurred in medicine, surgery, communications, physics, chemistry, and engineering. Man has been conquering unknown areas, and new worlds are opening to him. A higher standard of living has been made possible with the advent of synthetics, plastics, radar, television, third dimensional photography, prefabricated homes, and automatic transmissions in automobiles. Cosmology is being probed, and Dr. Immanuel Velikovsky has been reinterpreting history, Biblical miracles, and geography; his *Worlds in Collision* promises to be a stimulating inquiry. Space is being spanned, distances drastically reduced, and the stratosphere explored. An eventful development in modern history was the debut of the Industrial Revolution in the eighteenth century, as a result of which man for the first

time began to dominate his environment. Although atomic fission and nuclear physics have brought the world to a new threshold, the predominant question in most men's minds is how man will utilize this energy. A new era has dawned, and many are asking themselves whether man may not be conquered by the new power he has unleashed. The science of warfare has made astounding strides, and an incident which yesterday might have been local in nature today is international in scope. Scientists and industry are increasing the production of more effective atom bombs and at the same time are exploring the possibilities and potentialities of the hydrogen bomb; guided missiles are invading uncharted realms; the use of bacteriological warfare is constantly under contemplation; the proximity fuse bomb, improved tanks, bazookas, anti-aircraft guns, airplanes, surface craft, and snorkel submarines are increasing the efficacy of warfare.

The world is witnessing a liquidation of empires. The white man is being pushed out of India, Indonesia, Indo-China, and Malaya. Fabled Cathay is astir, and the Asiatic hordes are on the march. A new era is dawning, and the balance of power is again shifting. There were something like eight major powers between 1919 and 1941: Great Britain, the United States, France, Italy, Germany, Japan, China, and Russia; moreover the United States emerged as a creditor nation from World War I. An alignment of these powers into two camps, the "have" and the "have not" nations provoked World War II. The close of that war saw only two major powers remaining—the United States and Russia; other countries, for the most part, are only satellites. Thus, the old balance of power has been destroyed, and nations are now confronted with a new and more perilous catastrophe. Like two gladiators

in the arena, the United States and Russia are sparring and jockeying for position prior to a final showdown.

A stalemate has been reached in this struggle for power and supremacy. Man now stands at the crossroads. Armed with new weapons of destruction he at long last has the power to destroy himself and the world and may do so unless that power is taken away from him. How will he use his new weapons of destruction? How much hope can he place in the United Nations? At the close of World War I France insisted first on guarantees of security to be followed by general disarmament. England and the United States, on the other hand, held that disarmament would promote security. Today the United States, finding herself on ground occupied by France in 1919, first insists on guarantees of security before she will turn the atom bomb over to the United Nations. Russia, like the United States in 1919, insists on disarmament as a means of attaining security. Thus a stalemate over the issue of the atomic bomb has been reached in the United Nations. The contemporary historian, Arnold J. Toynbee, when asked what peoples he thought had the best chance for surviving World War III, first nominated the Eskimos of Alaska, but after further reflection he selected the pygmies of Africa. Toynbee contends there is no longer any question whether the world will be united. He is confident that it *will* attain unity; his primary concern, however, is whether it will be united by a knockout blow and the establishment of either a *Pax Americana* or a *Pax Russiana*, or whether it will attain unity through cooperative effort.

Military expenditures have, during a period of undeclared war, reached staggering heights, and on all sides one hears talk of World War III. Beginning a blood-typing project in anticipation of atomic bombing of American cities, the Amvets are issuing "dog tags" to Americans. There is something reprehensible with a society in which man is surrounded by hysteria, intimidation, fulmination, and chaos. It is all the more incongruous that man has reached such a nadir at a time when people everywhere yearn for peace and the more abundant life and when there are adequate land and resources for all. Contemporary developments reflect only too well a false sense of

values among mankind. The scientist, like Frankenstein, has created a monster over which he has only limited control. Science has provided man with lethal weapons which may alter the course of history, civilization, and progress. The pathos is all the greater because man, with a misguided sense of values, has encouraged science to produce implements of devastation at a time when the potentialities of science for the promotion of human welfare have never been greater.

Such is the problem, and this is where the social scientist can render a service. Great now is the need for social scientists, statesmen, public leaders, teachers, ministers, and citizens with breadth of vision and perspective—men and women trained in social, ethical, and spiritual values. Thus, the classics and social studies are more practical today than yesterday. Heretofore, many people have been prone to regard the humanities as interesting, amusing, harmless, and archaic—something in which the pedant and academician could indulge if they wished to affect an air of culture. Social studies teach indispensable lessons, and out of the rich experience of the past can emerge a more intelligent treatment of contemporary problems. What, then, are some of these lessons of the past? How can they be utilized today? More specifically, of what value is the study of history in the atomic age?

In economics one studies the business cycle, but most people are hardly aware of cyclic movements in history. Major changes occur in history about every five hundred years, and while it is dangerous to play with dates, still one may observe general trends. Highlights in the evolution of civilization are represented by the following stages of man's development:

3,000 B.C. to 2,500 B.C.	Egyptians
2,500 B.C. to 2,000 B.C.	Babylonians (Sumerian Period and the Age of Sargon I)
2,000 B.C. to 1,500 B.C.	Cretans and Aegean Power
1,500 B.C. to 1,000 B.C.	Indo-European Invasions and Attacks by the Sea Raiders
1,000 B.C. to 500 B.C.	Medes and Persians
500 B.C. to Birth of Christ	Greeks
Birth of Christ to 500 A.D.	Romans

- 500 A.D. to 1,000 A.D. Dark Ages
1,000 A.D. to 1,500 A.D. Crusades and Medievalism
1,500 A.D. to 2,000 A.D. Modern Period

Transitions were frequently accompanied by violent strife and chaos. As the year 2,000 approaches there are signs that the world may be on the verge of international unity. Perhaps it may be a *Pax Americana* or else some sort of voluntary cooperation such as world federation. Such an interpretation of history lends added significance to contemporary events. Another example of cyclic trends is the Hundred Years' War (1337-1453) in which England was virtually expelled from the Continent and the Second Hundred Years' War (1689-1763) in which France was ejected from North America. Possibly history will eventually record the period 1870-1970 or 1914-2000 as the Third Hundred Years' War which resulted in the decline of the nation-state in the West and the eviction of the white man from the Far East. Many are already agreed that the world has been plunged into a third global conflict. The discerning historian sees World War III not as another isolated war in itself but as part of a conflict which has been continuing for at least two generations.

In interpreting contemporary events the historian is able to lend richness of meaning to subject matter if he regards the present world conflict as a titanic struggle in the economic realm. In the past, man was fairly successful in solving the religious problem. From the Reformation in the sixteenth century to the close of the Anglo-French Wars in 1763 persecution, inquisition, and bitter warfare were conducted in the name of Christianity. By the nineteenth century much of this was largely a memory, and man has since been able to live with his fellow men in an atmosphere of toleration and tranquility. Similarly, man has dealt reasonably well with the political problem. The sixteenth century was one of absolutism and the seventeenth one of rule by divine right. By 1775 democratic forces were at work, and the thirteen English colonies in America set up a republic. France, plunged into civil war under the banner, "Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity," witnessed a violent struggle at the close of the eighteenth century

—a revolution which soon plunged Europe into warfare. With the defeat of Napoleon in 1815 reaction set in, and despite attempts of the Metternich System to preserve the *status quo*, democratic ideals could not long remain suppressed. By the middle of the nineteenth century democracy was a *fait accompli* in the western world. It is to the realm of economics that considerable turbulence in the contemporary world can be traced. With the overthrow of the Czar in 1917 and the advent of Bolshevism a new threat appeared in the West—one of an economic nature. The Russian experiment, although still young, constitutes a revolutionary idea which is now challenging the world-at-large. A strange combination is the totalitarianism and so-called communism of the Russian order. It is already dividing the world into two hostile camps. Thus, the quest for economic security has become one of the major challenges of the twentieth century.

A study of history teaches one that national greatness is an expensive luxury. The United States, one of the younger members of the family of nations, is at last discovering this to be true. Costs of defense are becoming almost prohibitive, yet they are continually mounting. Where the end lies nobody knows. It is hard to realize that three-fourths of the United States' revenue since the time of George Washington has been used solely for purposes of war; during World War II about ninety-five percent of the federal tax dollar was spent on war. Many Americans are deeply concerned over unbalanced budgets and continued deficit spending with no prospect for relief. Yet history teaches that as population multiplies, so the role and scope of the state increase. Citizens become more dependent on their government to do things which they as individuals can no longer do for themselves in the promotion of their general welfare. In recent years Americans have come to believe that human values are more important than property values. Both the New Deal and the Fair Deal have exploited this changed mental outlook. Such lessons history teaches those who study its pages, and he who knows his history is thereby better able to understand and evaluate the age in which he lives.

Just as the physical sciences are predicated on well established axioms, so the social studies

promulgate basic laws. The law of continuity teaches that history is an unbroken narrative which, despite certain gaps, flows on and on through the darkness of time and space. The law of impermanence reveals that nothing is fixed, that all things are relative, that nations rise and fall, that the course of civilization moves westward (it being apparent that the powers of tomorrow are those of the East), and that over-specialization leads to flaccidity, sterility, and collapse. The law of interdependence shows that individuals, tribes, and nations become more and more dependent on each other as civilization advances. The law of democracy proves that in the final analysis government must rest on the the consent of the governed. (Stalin might well take cognizance of this). The law of moral progress demonstrates that over a period man improves himself morally by becoming more humane and more tolerant. This is evident from advances in penology and the abolition of torture, inhumane punishments, and slavery. The business cycle verifies the recurrence of panics, depressions, recovery, and prosperity at intervals of approximately twenty years. The United States was due for a major depression about 1949, but the aftermath of World War II and the artificial recovery stimulated by the European Recovery Program have only delayed it. Lesser laws further aid one in interpreting contemporary events and in appraising the future. In national crises people turn to a great man for leadership. Maritime powers enjoy an enormous advantage and command primary consideration by other nations. Imprescriptibility often results in a loss of power and rights. Artificial regulation of basic laws of supply and demand cannot be permanent. High prices accompany and follow war. A government cannot make people good by mere legislative attempts; America's experiment in prohibition is exemplary. Americans never turn a president out of power during good times. The layman believes that history repeats itself. This is true only to a certain extent. The student of history knows that history seldom repeats itself in detail although general trends are cyclic.

Perhaps one of the greatest values of history

is that it teaches the value of perspective. Chaotic as world conditions are today, the student of history knows that crises have confronted the world before, and he can take great comfort in this knowledge. The sanguinary wars of the Assyrian Empire left behind a trail of destruction and desolation; the Peloponnesian and Persian Wars helped pave the way for the decline of Greece; the bitter persecution of the Christians has few, if any, parallels in history; the fall of Rome shook the foundations of the western world; the Dark Ages, feudalism, and medievalism seemed at the time to spell the doom of civilization in the West; the Anglo-French Wars, the French Revolution and Napoleonic Era, the Franco-Prussian War, and the first two world wars tried the souls of men, yet each time the world successfully withstood these crises. Catastrophic as contemporary events appear in the atomic age, perhaps out of the chaos will emerge some system of world order, the right of self-determination, and mutual respect of nations for each other. Since the debut of the nation-state nearly five hundred years ago the world has tried to maintain security by the archaic balance of power concept. Most of the major wars since 1500 have been fought for the maintenance of a favorable balance of power, but that which has been favorable for one group of nations has proved disconcerting to another. Possibly the day is at hand when men see the futility in the present nation-state system and will apply federalism, one of America's contributions to political science, on a world-wide scale. A knowledge of history eases the pain, grief, and despair during such times as these. History can be a great comforter and healer.

He who believes that the study of history is hardly justified in American education is only fooling himself. The humanities and social studies have a useful function to perform, and a serious study of them can produce a more intelligent and mentally alert citizen. History increases one's understanding of the past and present and enables him to evaluate the future more reliably. Since history is the known record of all that man has ever hoped, thought, felt, or done it is a valuable depository which has preserved the experience of yesterday. From

such cumulative experience men should be better able to solve problems as they arise, and in the final analysis few issues are really new. Contemporary problems may be garbed in new robes and trappings, but once stripped of their shining armor they usually have a parallel in the pages of the past. By broadening one's perspective, understanding, and tolerance the study of history can produce a better world in which to live.

The study of history increases one's understanding. It teaches him why some form of government is necessary; it shows him why a citizen owes his government obligations such as voting, payment of taxes, and performance of military duty; it explains basic changes in agriculture, labor, and industry as nations evolve from the pastoral and agricultural stage to the industrial stage with all its complexities; it teaches one why it is difficult to abolish war; it aids governments in the solution of contemporary problems; it helps man to understand better both himself and his neighbor.

The study of history enables one to appreciate his inheritance, and an affluent heritage it usually is—one deeply steeped in art, literature, music, religion, government, science, economics, sociology, ethics, philosophy, and geography. By appreciating one's debt to the past, one can better understand the present and plan more intelligently for the future. History increases one's regard for truth and past human effort; it inculcates reverence and respect for one's ancestors and at the same time enables him to profit from the mistakes of the past. History aids one in understanding society and the world in which he lives.

In June of 1942 and April of 1943 (war years) the *New York Times* made a survey which showed that some states do not require the teaching of history; tests administered to some 7,000 freshmen in thirty-six colleges and universities revealed an amazing ignorance of even the most elementary aspects of American history. In numerous colleges a study of American history is no longer required. Often, as a substitute, students are registered for special courses in orientation and civilization which cover nearly the entire realm of human experience. Such courses, a product of modern pedagogy, are often a waste of time and effort. In history orientation is valuable only after one has studied ancient, mediæval, European, and modern history. Then synthesis and integration are in order. On the other hand, to throw a course in orientation and civilization at freshmen who have little to orientate is pure folly. The study of American history should be required in American public schools and colleges. Such a program, properly conducted by a competent instructor, can in formal education be the experience of a lifetime. The writer is not deriding the physical sciences; they, too, are valuable and should be studied, but he does deplore the moronic attitude of many that history, the social studies, and the humanities have outlived their utility in the atomic age. Today the need is greater than ever before for an understanding of history, whether the student be a prospective businessman, minister, scientist, teacher, or common laborer. It is primarily through a better understanding of history that a more intelligent solution of contemporary problems can be reached.

Education in the New State—Israel

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

Washington Junior High School, Mount Vernon, New York

Learning and teaching have been the most striking fundamentals of Jewish spiritual life throughout the ages. Wherever their wanderings led them, the first thing the Jews established was the synagogue. It was therefore only a natural development that the Jews, return-

ing to Palestine, their ancient homeland, would see in the education of the young generation one of the most sacred tasks of the Jewish national revival. It was only natural that the educational work in the old-new homeland would be based on two pillars: the rich tradi-

tion of the long-since past, and the experiences the Jews as individuals gathered during the emancipation period in Europe. It was natural, too, that a creative synthesis should be sought, to combine the cultural values of a thousand-year-old pure Jewish learning with the general education and studies of modern times.

Jewish education in Palestine has, of course, its own rich history. Schools have been maintained by the Jews there continuously since the time of the Second Temple, when Rabbi Bar Gamliel appointed teachers in every town. Three different periods can be traced in the development of Jewish education in the Holy Land.

The first, until now the longest period, was that maintained by the religious schools, the Yeshivoth, or Talmudical Colleges, which were the dominant model of education of Jewish youth until the middle of the 19th century.

The second period began around 1860 when the first steps were made to open elementary schools or combined religious schools. This period closed with the outbreak of the first World War.

The third period is that of our time. Its start coincided with the opening of the new chapter in modern Jewish history, following the Balfour Declaration.

Organized education began with the British conquest in 1918, when the Zionist Commission headed by Dr. Weizmann, now Israel's first president, made its first steps to initiate a national educational system. Then an Education Department was established and an Educational Board, composed of representatives of the Zionist Executive, the Vaad Leumi (National Council of Palestine Jews) and the Teachers' Organization was set up. Cultural and educational standards were laid down for the appointment of teachers and a wage scale for teachers was fixed. Lines of work were set for kindergartens, and syllabi were drawn up for elementary and secondary schools and teachers' training colleges.

At the Zionist Conference in London in 1920, the first to be held after the Balfour Declaration, the decision was taken that schools in Palestine should be divided into four categories; the General, Labor, Mizrachi, and Aguda. All teach the Talmud, ancient law book, but in a diminishing degree beginning with Aguda.

The four may be generally split into two classifications, with the Aguda and Mizrachi giving prominence to religious studies and General and Labor featuring more of social studies.

Parents are allowed to elect the type to which their child shall be sent. This does not provide a too serious problem in urban centers able to afford all types. In smaller communities, however, it brings inevitable conflict and has been a source of considerable conflicting discussion in the Knesset (Parliament).

The young nation of Israel is facing, in the educational field, many of the problems all nations of the world are facing, but to a more acute degree. "Only the intelligence and vitality of its people will solve these problems," according to Dr. Earl J. McGrath, U. S. Commissioner of Education, recently returned from an educational survey there.

Just as in the United States, one of the great educational worries confronting Israel is the shortage of teachers and lack of housing. The shortage in housing can be solved here and there with makeshift arrangements. The shortage in teachers is much more serious. The universities are attempting to cope with this problem, but the constant influx of new immigrants makes this more acute. Another phase which needs emphasis is that of vocational training. This is an educational phase in which the nation must make enormous progress if it is to cope with required production, stated Dr. McGrath.

Immigration, to which the nation is committed in unlimited numbers is placing a heavy strain on all phases of the national life, he said. This is as true of education as it is of the national economy. Within the next three years the nation expects 500,000 immigrants, of whom a substantial number will be school children. In summing up his over-all impressions, Dr. McGrath said; "Israel seems to me to be a social laboratory of the first order. If I were a young social or political student, Jewish or non-Jewish, I would want to go to Israel for a year or two."

It is obvious that the main concern of the Israel Government is to provide primary education for all. In the new Jewish State, it was pointed out, all children from six to sixteen, or even eighteen, should be enabled to go to school, with particular care given to gifted

children. Compulsory education, free of charge, and extension of the present network,—administratively, professionally, and spiritually—is another goal.

One of the most urgent problems which confronts Jewish education in the new state is the question of providing equal education for Arab children within its borders, and particularly for Bedouin children. The adoption of compulsory education would leave a big gap between the advanced schooling of Jewish children and the lower standard of the Arabs. It is the aim of the educational authorities in the new state to introduce methods in order to bridge that gap. To support Jewish-Arab co-operation, Dr. Ernst Rieger, Jewish educational authority, suggested the establishment of common educational meetings of Jewish and Arab teachers to discuss pedagogical and professional matters. Such co-operation, he said, should be extended to teachers' seminars,

training and playgrounds, and the universities.

Dr. B. Ben Yehuda, head of the Vaad Leumi's Educational Department, in pleading for an increase for extracurricular activities of school youth and for more children's clubs, more playgrounds and more scouting activities, stated this as the great aim of Jewish Education, "The Jewish School in the new Jewish State should be a continuation of all those great centers of learning of European Jewry destroyed in recent years." Despite the fact that this new state is confronted with so many challenges, it is obvious to the rest of the world that educational changes are in the making which will challenge our own educational theories and standards. For here in this new state we find that out of the mixture of present day educational philosophy and its own ancient theories, a new trend is emerging which may affect our own educational beliefs in the years to come.

World History by Units for Secondary Schools

WINIFRED B. FOSTER

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UNIT X. BETWEEN TWO WARS. 4 Weeks.

Specific Aims:

1. An understanding of the political situation in France.
2. An understanding of England's difficulties with Ireland and India.
3. An understanding of how communism became established in Russia.
4. An understanding of how Italy, Spain, and Germany became totalitarian.
5. An understanding of the Far East situation which led to war.
6. An understanding of the situation in Germany which led to war.

Introduction:

The treaty of Versailles merely provided, as it turned out, a twenty year truce between two

wars. Or did the European powers merely take up the war where they left off 20 years before? The treaty of Versailles, justly or unjustly as the case may be, had left Germany crushed and humiliated. The depression had been hard on the new German Republic. People were unemployed and dissatisfied. Then it seemed natural that the German people should follow blindly leaders who promised to lead them to prosperity and to restore the nation's power and glory. In this way it seemed that Germany was taking up arms where she had laid them down twenty years before.

In this unit we shall see what changes were taking place in the major nations during these twenty years, how they were solving their problems and what progress, if any, democracy had made. And so we shall see how well or how ill prepared the nations were for the great struggle ahead.

Editor's Note: This is the fifth group of units in an eleven-unit outline for a one-year World History course for high schools. Other units will appear in succeeding issues.

Outline Survey of Unit:

FRANCE

- I. Post war Problems—debts, rebuilding and restoration, depression
- II. Political parties in France—many parties and much rivalry
 - A. Rightists or Conservatives—DeGaulle
 - B. Middle-of-the-Road—Socialists, Radical Socialists, M.P.R.
 - C. Leftists—Communists

ENGLAND

- I. Problems—debts, navy reduced, German and Russian markets gone, factories produce less, unemployment
- II. Ireland—independence (recall England's previous problems with Ireland)
 - A. Punished for sympathy with Germany
 - B. Republic set up followed by Civil War
 - C. Irish Free State a dominion, 1921
 - D. Independent State set up—Eire—South Ireland
 - 1. Northern Ireland stays with England—Ulster
- III. India
 - A. Helped during war—demanded self-government
 - B. 1919—Government of India Act—England allows some self-government
 - 1. Nationalists led by Gandhi want complete self-government
 - 2. Native princes friendly to England
 - C. Gandhi's methods—passive resistance, fasting
 - D. Indians ask dominion status—refused—followed by new campaign of disobedience to British laws—bloodshed
 - E. Conference—1935—Government of India Act—more self-government
 - F. Indians still not satisfied—wanted dominion status
 - 1. British argument—differences of race, language, religion; caste; illiteracy of people made them unfit for self-government; must educate natives and gradually prepare them to take over government
 - 2. Indians' argument—right to govern themselves without interference of foreign power
 - G. India in World War II
 - 1. Threatened to help Japan if no promises from England

2. England promised dominion status after war

H. India after World War II

- 1. Divided into 4 dominions—India (Hindustan), Pakistan, Burma, Ceylon
- 2. Burma and Ceylon now independent

RUSSIA

I. Bolsheviki defeat enemies

- A. Allies send troops to help democratic forces in Russia against Bolsheviki
- B. Cheka—secret police of Bolsheviki—arrest and execute thousands
- C. Allies withdraw—Communists win—recognize Latvia, Lithuania, Estonia, Finland, Poland

II. Constitution for Russia—private property abolished

- A. Land, forest, mines, natural resources become national property
- B. Land to be given to peasants—no compensation for former owners
- C. Factories, mills, railways, banks—to government

III. U.S.S.R. established (1923)

- A. 11 republics
- B. 22 autonomous republics
- C. 9 national districts

IV. New Economic Policy—N.E.P.

- A. Cause
 - 1. Shortage of manufactured goods—due to lack of knowledge and experience of workers
 - 2. Shortage of food—peasants determine to grow only enough for own needs

B. N.E.P.

- 1. Peasants permitted to sell surplus crops
- 2. People permitted to open small shops and factories—not more than 20 workers

V. Stalin the Dictator—1924—Trotsky exiled—later assassinated

VI. Five-Year Plans—to increase production along all lines

- A. Government projects
- B. Collective farms—government takes peasants' land
- C. Technical and engineering schools to train Russians

(Continued on page 355)

T 18. Changing Economic and Social Life

STUDY OUTLINE

1. Prodigious Economic Change, c. 1790-1860

- a. Industrial Revolution in America: British origins; Slater and its transfer to New England—early factory system; Hamilton and protection of manufactures; industrial effects of War of 1812; new labor problems and early labor unions; problems of the early factory towns
 - b. Agricultural revolution: diversified farming, especially in the East; improved farming techniques and machines (McCormick); agricultural expansion westward—marketing problems
 - c. Industrial expansion: many, varied inventions (e.g., by Colt, Daguerre, Fulton, Goodyear, Howe, McCormick, Morse, Stephenson) open new industries; spread of factory system and factory towns
 - d. Currency and banking: state banks and wildcat currency; improving state systems
 - e. Land transportation: continuing earlier modes; turnpike roads and toll bridges; the Cumberland Road (National Pike) and highways west; experiments with vehicles on rails (horse-drawn, sails, gravity)—Stephenson's locomotive; the first American railroads and important early lines; growth in 1850's—trunk lines
 - f. Water transportation: era of canal building—the noted canals; experimenters with steam-powered vessels—Fulton's *Clermont*; spread of steam navigation internally; beginnings of oceanic steam navigation; era of clipper ships
 - g. Financing internal improvements: by private capital, state action, federal action; western hunger for federal aid and reasons for Presidential opposition; Clay's "American System" and internal improvements; over-expansion, and many engineering and financial failures
 - h. Population growth: shown in the census; immigration in decades after War of 1812; westward march of frontier and center of population—effects of California gold discovery
 - i. Foreign commerce
 - 1) Foreign restrictions and American efforts to remove them; trade handicaps during Napoleonic Wars
 - 2) Revival of overseas commerce, and prosperous trade after Panic of 1837—American superiority in sailing vessels
 - 3) Trading rights in the Pacific—China, Japan (Cushing, Perry)
 - 4) Low tariff policy, 1833-1861: tariff acts of 1842, 1846, 1857; consequences
 - 5) Principal American exports and imports
 - j. Results of economic developments: expanding export markets; lowered freights; growing westward movement; spreading transportation system; growth in wealth; little overall, systematic planning
- #### 2. Social and Cultural Developments
- a. Flowering of literature: poetry—Longfellow, Bryant, Whittier, Lowell, Holmes, Poe; prose—Poe, Cooper, Irving, Emerson, Thoreau, Hawthorne; the historians Bancroft, Motley, Parkman, Prescott
 - b. Educational advances: New England public schools; remarkable policy of giving public lands to promote education; spread of public schools in states and territories; educational journals, normal schools, high schools; improvements in buildings, books, curriculum, teacher training; notable leaders—Horace Mann

- c. Religious revival: American Bible Society; circuit riders, camp and revival meetings; church activity and missionary work at home and abroad; the Mormons
- d. Changing cities: growing number and size of cities; new comforts, conveniences, rising living standards; waxing problems of health, safety, slums, etc.; urban political, economic, and social abuses
- e. Social reforms
 - 1) European socialistic and communist theories and American experimental communities—Brook Farm, New Harmony
 - 2) Reform movements for women's rights, temperance, improvement of slums and of factory conditions, more enlightened treatment of criminals, debtors, the insane
 - 3) Anti-slavery agitation and the abolition movement (see Topic T19)
 - 4) More sensitive social conscience and feeling of social responsibility

AIDS TO LEARNING

AUDIO-VISUAL

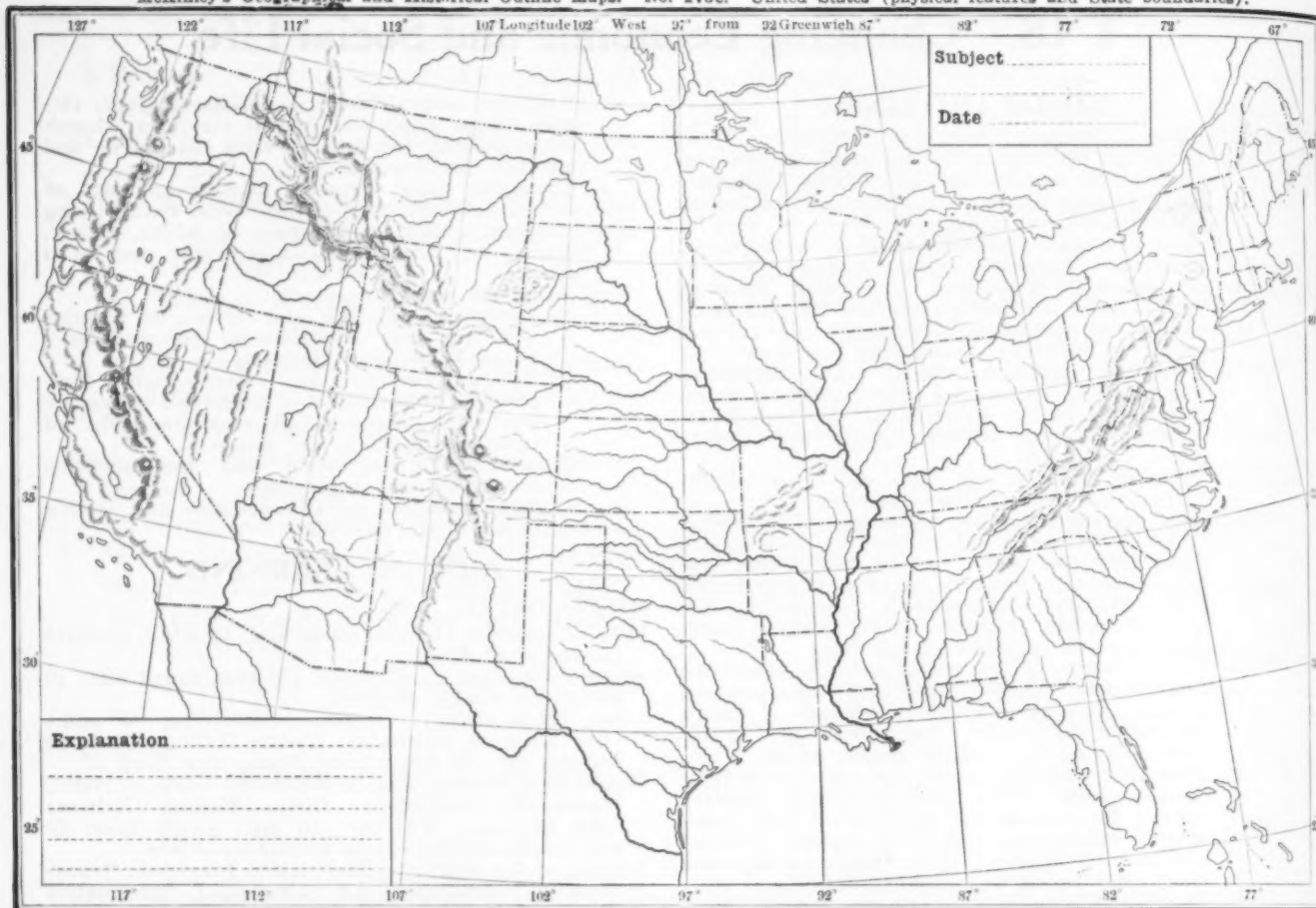
- Why Cities Grow (16 mm. sound film; 10 min.). Coronet Instructional Films
- Story of Transport and Travel (16 mm. sound film; 40 min.). Knowledge Builders
- Clear Track Ahead (16 mm. sound film; 25 min.) (100 years of railroads). Modern Talking Pictures Service, Inc., 10 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20
- Washington Irving; James Fenimore Cooper; Henry Wadsworth Longfellow; Oliver Wendell Holmes; John Greenleaf Whittier (16 mm. sound films; 20 min. each). Encyclopedia Britannica Films
- Coming of the Machine; Science and Invention; Transportation; Americans All (filmstrips). Informative Classroom Picture Publishers
- Transportation and Communication Series; Great American Inventors (filmstrips). Curriculum Films
- Transportation Series (filmstrips). Society for Visual Education
- The Literature of Freedom (filmstrip). Popular Science Publishing Co.
- The Story of Literature (31 slides); The Story of Art, (32 slides); The Story of Architecture (23 slides). The Pageant of America Lantern Slides, by Yale University Press

HISTORIES

- W. E. Dodd, *Expansion and Conflict* (Riverside History of the U.S.)
- C. R. Fish, *The Rise of the Common Man* (A History of American Life, vol. 6)
- A. B. Hart, *National Ideals Historically Traced* (The American Nation, vol. 26)
- A. B. Hulbert, *The Paths of Inland Commerce*; R. D. Paine, *The Old Merchant Marine*; H. Thompson, *The Age of Invention*; J. Moody, *The Railroad Builders*; E. E. Slosson, *The American Spirit in Education*; B. Perry, *The American Spirit in Literature* (The Chronicles of America, vols. 21, 33, 34, 36-38)
- The Pageant of America: see pertinent portions of vols. 2-5 on frontier, agriculture, commerce, industry; and of vols. 10-15 on ideals, literature, art, architecture, stage, sport
- J. T. Adams, *Album of American History*, II; C. A. & M. R. Beard, *The Rise of American Civilization*; S. Bent, *Machine-Made Man*; H. Buckmaster, *Let My People Go*; R. Burlingame, *March of the Iron Men*;

¹ This is the eighteenth of a series of History Topics for American History prepared by Morris Wolf, Girard College, Philadelphia, Pa.

McKinley's Geographical and Historical Outline Maps. No. 175c. United States (physical features and State boundaries).



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MAP STUDY FOR TOPIC T18: TRANSPORTATION LINKS OF THE EXPANDING NATION (c. 1850)

Show the main transportation lines at mid-century: highways, railroads, canals, rivers. Did East-West or North-South lines predominate?

R. P. Butterfield, *The American Past*; G. W. Cable, *Old Creole Days*; E. Channing, *History of the U. S.*, V; F. R. Dulles, *America Learns to Play*; G. Foster, *Abraham Lincoln's World*; A. F. Harlow, *Old Townships*; D. MacI. Henderson, *Yankee Ships in China Seas*; A. D. Hewes, *Two Oceans to Canton*; S. Holbrook, *Lost Men in American History and The Story of American Railroads*; A. B. Hulbert, *Great American Canals*; W. D. Kaempffert, *A Popular History of American Invention*; A. Laing, *The Sea Witch*; W. C. Langdon, *Everyday Things in American Life*; J. B. McMaster, *History of the People of the U.S.*, III, VI, VII; M. Minnigerode, *The Fabulous Forties*; S. E. Morison & H. S. Commager, *The Growth of the American Republic*; U. B. Phillips, *Life and Labor in the Old South*; J. F. Rhodes, *History of the U.S.*, I, III; A. M. Schlesinger, *New Viewpoints in American History*; A. M. Schlesinger, Jr., *Age of Jackson*; A. F. Tyler, *Freedom's Ferment*

Biographies: G. I. adford, *Portraits of American Women*; J. J. Chapman, *William Lloyd Garrison*; W. E. Dodd, *Statesmen of the Old South*; O. W. Firkins, *Ralph Waldo Emerson*; M. R. Werner, *Brigham Young*. Consult the American Statesmen Series and the Dictionary of American Biography

Folk Lore and Songs: American History in Song, III-V (5 records per album, by Burl Ives: Songs of the North and South; Songs of the Sea; Songs of the

Frontier. Encyclopedia Britannica Films); R. A. Barnes, *I Hear America Singing* (folk poetry); R. Field, *American Folk and Fairy Tales*; J. A. & A. Lomax, *American Ballads and Folk Songs*; H. W. Odum & G. B. Johnson, *Negro Workaday Songs*; T. Scott, *Sing of America*; H. W. Thompson, *Body, Boots and Britches*; W. G. Tyrrell, *Musical Recordings for American History*, I

ATLASES

Harper's Atlas of American History; C. L. & E. H. Lord, *Historical Atlas of the U.S.*; C. O. Paullin, *Atlas of the . . . U.S.*, Plates 50A, 62, 63, 70E-J, 76, 77, 80A, 138, 139

STORIES

C. S. Bailey, *Children of the Handcrafts*; A. Chapman, *The Pony Express*; S. L. Clemens (Mark Twain), *Life on the Mississippi*; A. Colver, *Listen for the Voices*; J. B. Connolly, *Out of Gloucester*; R. H. Dana, *Two Years Before the Mast*; C. B. Davis, *Nebraska Coast*; W. D. Edmonds, *Erie Water and Rome Haul*; E. Ferber, *Show Boat*; V. Fisher, *Children of God*; H. Garland, *Trail-Makers of the Middle Border*; H. Greene, *Pickett's Gap*; L. P. Hauck, *The Youngest Rider*; C. I. Judson, *Michael's Victory*; M. F. Lansing, *Nicholas Arnold, Toolmaker*; L. Long, *Square Sails and Spice Islands*; I. McL. McMeekin, *Journey Cake*; S. W. Meader, *Jonathan Goes West and Longshanks*; H. Melville, *Moby Dick*; C. L.

VEHICLES AND VESSELS, ABOUT A CENTURY AGO



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" Davis.....	" 90.	" Tucson.....	" 135.
" Quitman,	100.	" Fort Yuma.....	" 102.
" Birchville,	100.	" San Diego.....	" 100.
" San Elisario,	100.	" Los Angeles.....	" 190.
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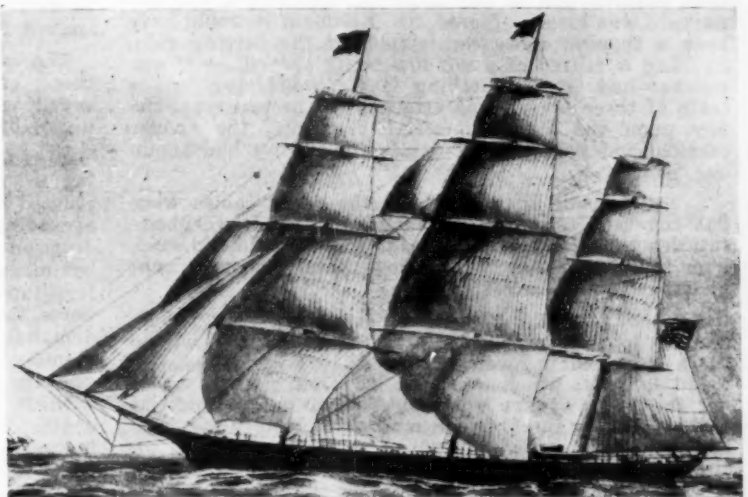
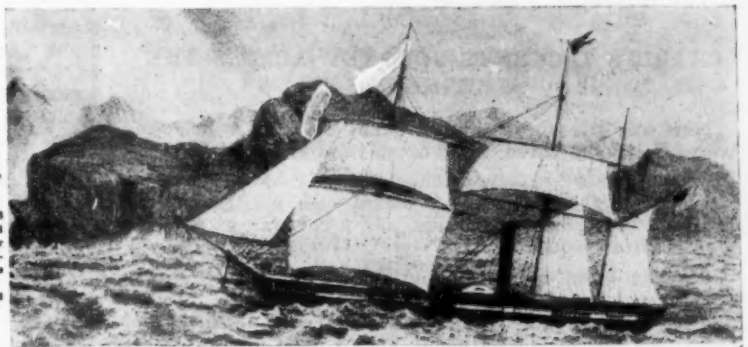
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3

It is startling to realize that the mechanical means of transportation to which we are accustomed are less than two centuries old. And what a far cry it is from such conveyances as above to those of nowadays! Was the Mohawk and Hudson Railway train of 1832, at the top of the page, far removed from the stage coach whose advertisement is quoted below it? Why did not the engine burn coal? The steamship shown, the U. S. frigate *Mississippi*, carried Commodore Perry to Japan, 1852-54. But sail was still in its heyday, and the clipper "*Young America*" is shown in full sail.* The bottom scene, in early Kansas, shows what various means of transportation?

* From Clark's *The Clipper Ship Era*, Longmans, Green and Co.



Skelton, *Riding West on the Pony Express*; C. D. Snedeker, *The Town of the Fearless*; S. Young, *Heaven Trees*

SOURCES

H. S. Commager, *Documents of American History*, 162, 163; H. S. Commager & A. Nevins, *The Heritage of America*, 79-96; S. E. Forman, *Sidelights on Our... History*, pp. 34-35, 83-92, 137-145, 166-173, 180-189, 218-235, 237-240, 266-268, 309-347, 379-383, 390-399, 416-424, 438-446, 452-461, 465-488; A. B. Hart, *American History Told by Contemporaries*, III, ch. 25 & IV, chs. 4, 6-12; D. S. Muzzey, *Readings in American History*, 59, 60, 69, 70; A. Nevins, *Philip Hone's Diary*; *Veterans of Foreign Wars, America*, VI ("The Developing Nation"); I. F. Woestemeyer, *The Westward Movement*, 1-6

CHARLES DICKENS'S JOURNEY ACROSS THE ALLEGHENIES

Nor was the sight of this canal boat, in which we were to spend three or four days, by any means a cheerful one; . . .

However, there it was—a barge with a little house in it, viewed from the outside, and a caravan at a fair, viewed from within. . . .

We sat here, looking silently at the row of little tables, which extended down both sides of the cabin, and listening to the rain as it dripped and pattered on the boat, and plashed with a dismal merriment in the water, until the arrival of the railway train, for whose final contribution to our stock of passengers, our departure was alone deferred. . . . No doubt it would have been a thought more comfortable if the driving rain, . . . had admitted of a window being opened, or if our number had been something less than thirty; . . . a train of three horses was attached to the tow-rope, the boy upon the leader smacked his whip, the rudder creaked and groaned complainingly, and we had begun our journey.

. . . At about six o'clock, all the small tables were put together to form one long table, and everybody sat down to tea, coffee, bread, butter, salmon, shad, liver, steaks, potatoes, pickles, ham, chops, black-puddings and sausages. . . .

By the time the meal was over, the rain, which seemed to have worn itself out by coming down so fast, was nearly over too; and it became feasible to go on deck: which was a great relief, notwithstanding its being a very small deck, and being rendered still smaller by the luggage, which was heaped together in the middle under a tarpaulin covering; leaving, on either side, a path so narrow, that it became a science to walk to and fro without tumbling overboard into the canal. It was somewhat embarrassing at first, too, to have to duck nimbly every five minutes whenever the man at the helm cried "Bridge!" and sometimes, when the cry was "Low Bridge," to lie down nearly flat. . . . there were so many bridges that it took a very short time to get used to this.

. . . when we crossed the Susquehanna river—over which there is an extraordinary wooden bridge with two galleries, one above the other, so that even there, two boat teams meeting, may pass without confusion. . . .

I have mentioned my having been in some uncertainty and doubt, at first, relative to the sleeping arrangements on board this boat. I remained in the same vague state of mind until ten o'clock or thereabouts, when going below, I found suspended on either side of the cabin, three long tiers of hanging book-shelves, designed apparently for volumes of the small octavo size. Looking with greater attention at these contriv-

ances (wondering to find such literary preparations in such a place), I descried on each shelf a sort of microscopic sheet and blanket; then I began dimly to comprehend that the passengers were the library, and that they were to be arranged, edge-wise, on these shelves, till morning. . . .

As soon as any gentleman found his number, he took possession of it. . . . As to the ladies, they were already abed, behind the red curtain, . . . though as every cough, or sneeze, or whisper, behind this curtain was perfectly audible before it, we had still a lively consciousness of their society. . . .

Between five and six o'clock in the morning we got up, and some of us went on deck, to give them an opportunity of taking the shelves down; while others, . . . crowded round the rusty stove, cherishing the newly kindled fire, and filling the grate with those voluntary contributions of which they had been so liberal all night [expectations]. The washing accommodations were primitive. There was a tin ladle chained to the deck, with which every gentleman who thought it necessary (many were superior to this weakness), fished the dirty water out of the canal, and poured it into a tin basin, secured in like manner. There was also a jack-towel. And hanging up before a little looking-glass in the bar, in the immediate vicinity of the bread and cheese and biscuits, were a public comb and hair-brush.

At eight o'clock, the shelves being taken down . . . and the tables joined together, everybody sat down to [breakfast]. . . . When everybody had done with everything, the fragments were cleared away: and one of the waiters appearing anew in the character of a barber, shaved such of the company as desired to be shaved. . . .

The canal extends to the foot of the mountain, and there, of course, it stops; the passengers being conveyed across it by land carriage, and taken on afterwards by another canal boat. . . .

We had left Harrisburg on Friday. On Sunday morning we arrived at the foot of the mountain, which is crossed by railroad. There are ten inclined planes; five ascending, and five descending; the carriages are dragged up the former, and let slowly down the latter, by means of stationary engines; the comparatively level spaces between, being traversed, sometimes by horse, and sometimes by engine power, as the case demands. Occasionally the rails are laid upon the extreme verge of a giddy precipice; and looking from the carriage window, the traveller gazes sheer down, without a stone or fence between, into the mountain depths below. The journey is very carefully made, however, only two carriages travelling together; and while proper precautions are taken, is not to be dreaded for its dangers.

It was amusing, too, when we had dined, and rattled down a steep pass, having no other moving power than the weight of the carriages themselves, to see the engine released, long after us, come buzzing down alone. . . . But it stopped short of us in a very business-like manner when we reached the canal; and before we left the wharf [for Pittsburgh], went panting up the hill again, with the passengers who had waited our arrival for the means of traversing the road by which we had come. . . .—Charles Dickens, *American Notes*, parts of chs. 9, 10.

Dickens, at twenty-nine, already was famous when he made his first American visit in 1841. What passages above show that features of life here impressed him unfavorably? What public inconveniences and unhygienic arrangements apparently were commonplace then? What parts of Dickens's description particularly impress you?

(Continued from page 350)

D. Second Plan

1. Improve transportation
2. More goods for workers; better quality

E. Results

1. More goods at lower cost
2. Russia second in pig iron; 3rd in steel
3. Kulaks (well-to-do peasants of the N.E.P.) heavily taxed and finally liquidated

VII. Constitution of 1936

- A. Private property—incomes from work and savings, homes, furniture, objects of personal use
- B. Fundamental rights. Name them
- C. Duties of citizens. Name them

VIII. Organization of the Government

- A. U.S.S.R.—voluntary federation of republics of equal rights and power to secede
- B. Supreme Council (Soviet)—highest legislative body
- C. Presidium—acts for Council between sessions
- D. Council of People's Commissars—highest administrative body of union—heads of various departments

IX. Third International or Comintern

- A. Purpose—to unite the workers of the world to overthrow capitalistic government in all other countries
- B. Organization
 1. Branches in foreign countries take orders from Moscow
 2. Secret agents direct activities
- C. Activities
 1. Strikes and riots among labor groups
 2. Spread literature of propaganda
 3. Elect communists to public office

X. Progress in Education

- A. Compulsory education 8-16
- B. High schools, technical and vocational schools, colleges

XI. Attitude toward religion—hostile—why?

- A. Church lands and buildings seized by government
- B. Worship allowed—all might attend except members of Communist party

C. No missionary activity

- D. Government favors atheism—non-believers allowed to engage in anti-religious propaganda

XII. Is Russia democratic? Summarize undemocratic ways

ITALY

I. Bad postwar conditions

- A. Farming and manufacturing at standstill
- B. Business slow, foreign trade off
- C. Great national debts, inflation and high prices
- D. Factories close—unemployment and depression
- E. Lawlessness—peasants raid farms of wealthy and seize land, strikes and sabotage in factories, street fighting and rioting—Communism begins

II. Rise of Fascist Party—Mussolini leader—Il Duce

- A. Fascio Club organized—ex-service men—more democracy, order, no revolution
 1. Fighting bands to suppress Communists
 2. Gain seats in parliament
- B. National Fascist Party—outgrowth of clubs—Roman symbol and salute—democratic ideas
- C. Party overthrows liberal government—King invites Mussolini to form cabinet

III. Mussolini as Premier

- A. Gets dictatorial powers from Parliament—dismisses opponents and puts Fascists in all departments
- B. Roman question settled 1929
 1. Pope sovereign over Vatican City—few acres including St. Peter's and the Vatican
 2. Pope gives up claim to Rome—Church was paid for losses
 3. Roman Catholic religion the official one in Italy
 4. Religious instruction in elementary schools
- C. Achievements of Fascist government
 1. Adjusted debts
 2. Developed natural resources—no dependence on foreign powers
 3. Railways improved, roads laid out

4. Shipping and foreign trade increased
 5. Auto and aircraft industries developed
 6. Electric plants, public works
 - D. Price of achievements
 1. Loss of democracy
 - a. No criticism of government
 - b. No other parties
 - c. Children taught Fascism
 - d. Little voting
 2. U.M.T. required
 - E. Foreign Policy
 1. Wins Dodecanese and Rhodes islands from Greece
 2. Fiume awarded to Italy later
 3. France awards African lands to Italy
 4. Italy conquers Ethiopia 1936—League couldn't stop it
 5. Albania annexed
- SPAIN
- I. Bad conditions after World War I—trade fell off, unemployment grew, heavy taxes, army cliques control government, strikes and riots
 - II. Rivera as dictator—resigns and leaves country
 - III. Republic established—president elected every 6 years
 - A. Reforms
 1. Big estates seized—land given to peasants
 2. Tax laws revised
 - B. Bad Policies
 1. Catholic church dethroned—loses land and property, no money from government, church schools closed, religious orders dissolved
 2. Army officers dismissed—some sent overseas
 - IV. Franco as Dictator
 - A. Franco returns and heads revolutionists—is aided by Italy and Germany with volunteers and war materials
 - B. Franco overturns Republic
 - C. Fascist dictatorship established
 1. Land restored to former owners
 2. Authority and property of church restored
 3. Anti-Comintern Pact with Axis powers
- GERMANY
- I. Rise of National Socialist Party
 - A. German Workers' Union—met in tavern—Hitler 7th to join—hated republic—dreamed of Great Germany
 - B. Party formed—Rohm head of army
 - C. Party reorganized—Now National Socialist—Nazi
 1. Hitler as der Fuhrer—*Mein Kampf*
 2. Aim—restore Germany and make her a great power
 - D. Nazis grow
 1. Crash of 1929 helps Nazis grow—blame Republic for poverty, unemployment, loss of savings, Communism
 2. 1930—Nazis have 107 seats in Reichstag
 3. 1932—700,000 members—Hitler runs close race for President—is made Chancellor
 - II. Nazis gain control
 - A. Hitler orders elections—causes opponents to lose
 - B. Hitler gets dictator powers
 - III. The Nazi Regime
 - A. Persecution of Jews—boycott of shops, out of offices, insulted, attacked, shops demolished, concentration camps, can't attend schools, theaters, movies or own autos; no citizenship; fines, fires
 - B. Making Germany a Totalitarian State—controlling total life
 1. Other parties suppressed
 2. Trade unions broken up
 3. States reduced to provinces—Chancellor nominates all governors; state legislatures powerless
 4. Hitler becomes Fuhrer 1934 after death of Hindenburg—offices of president and Chancellor combined—more power than Bismarck or any Hohenzollern
 5. No freedom of speech, press, religion, or education
 6. Gestapo—secret police—act as spies
 - C. Hitler's Foreign Policy
 1. Germany re-arms 1935 against Treaty—Hitler says for defense
 2. Germany refortifies Rhine—also

- against Versailles treaty
- 3. Creation of Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis—1936

CHINA

- I. China under two governments 1917-1928
 - A. Peking government — President Li Yuan
 - B. Canton government — Nationalists — Sun Yat Sen
 - 1. Communism enters—Soviet advisers assist
 - 2. Split in party caused by violent activities of Communists
 - 3. Communists suppressed and expelled by Chiang Kai Shek
 - C. Civil War between Peking and Canton —Chiang captures Peking
- II. Government of the Republic set up at Nanking 1928
 - A. Constant Communist uprising
 - B. Great progress under Chiang
 - 1. Controlling flood waters
 - 2. Roads and auto highways
 - 3. Harbors improved
 - 4. Better methods of farming
 - 5. More schools and textbooks
 - C. Government not strong enough to manage and hold outlying provinces

JAPAN AND THE COMING OF WORLD WAR II

- I. In World War I—supplied war materials, built up gold reserves, increased investments abroad
- II. World depression—1929—exports fall off, business crippled, wages cut, unemployment, strikes
 - A. Invasion of Manchuria 1931—*beginning of World War II in Asia*
 - 1. Manchukuo set up as a protectorate of Japan
 - 2. League fails to help China
 - 3. Japan withdraws from League 1933
 - B. Creation of Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis
 - 1. Germany - Italy - Japan recognize each other's conquests
 - 2. Germany-Italy-Japan sign Anti-Comintern Pact

GERMANY AND THE COMING OF WORLD WAR II

- I. Hitler prepares for total war
 - A. Absolute dictatorship established—no time wasted in discussion and voting
 - B. Gigantic rearmament program

- C. Mobilizing home front—Germany on wartime basis
 - 1. Manufacture of war materials
 - 2. Industrial development—be independent of foreign goods
 - 3. Propaganda to stir up hatred in German people
- D. Organization of government leadership
 - 1. Adolph Hitler—der Fuhrer—the leader
 - 2. Hermann Göring—director of economic program, head of air force
 - 3. Rudolph Hess—closest friend and deputy leader of party
 - 4. Joseph Goebbels—official mouth-piece
 - 5. Joachim von Ribbentrop—foreign minister
 - 6. Heinrich Himmler—leader of Gestapo—secret police

II. Hitler's bloodless victories

- A. Austria annexed—Allies do nothing about it 1938
- B. Czechoslovakia
 - 1. Sudetenland 1938—Allies hold conference and agree
 - 2. All Czechoslovakia a protectorate of Germany
 - a. Germany and Italy make alliance
 - b. Russia makes treaties with Germany
- C. Poland invaded 1939—*beginning of World War II in Europe*

Suggested Class Activities:

- 1. Text reading as basis of discussion
- 2. Library reading to increase interest
- 3. Oral reports on outside readings
- 4. Class discussions based on outline and readings
- 5. Visual aids—films, filmstrips, slides
- 6. Map studies
- 7. Lessons on notetaking for theme writing

Suggested Home Work Activities:

- 1. Topics for reports:
 - DeGaulle
 - Gandhi
 - Stalin and Trotsky
 - Comintern
 - Mussolini
 - Communism
 - Fascism

Totalitarianism
Franco
Hitler
Chiang Kai Shek
League of Nations

2. Read from reference reading list. Include those on World War II, if you desire.
3. Write a theme using all the proper steps.

4. Map of world—*League of Nations Members*.
5. Map of world—*World Powers and Their Territories 1921*.¹
6. Chart—The League of Nations.

¹ On this map show in color the following nations and their possessions: U.S., England, France, Germany, Russia, Spain, China, Japan, Italy.

All Aboard! New York-Washington Travelers!

MARGARET E. MANN

Benjamin Bosse High School, Evansville, Indiana

In early December, 1949, a caption similar to the above title appeared in our school's morning bulletin followed by a reminder that another spring journey would be made to our capital city and to the nation's largest metropolis. It was suggested that Christmas gift checks or money earned at holiday jobs might aid in providing financial means for spending eight glorious days in educational travel. The interest and applicants that this announcement produced far exceeded our expectations.

While these journeys are neither original nor unique for our local public high school, nevertheless we feel that so few schools take advantage of this type of project that something should be written to encourage more teachers to consider them. One of our biggest and most pleasant surprises of two years ago when we made our first school journey to Washington was to find so many other school groups there. We talked with chaperones of groups from Kentucky, Massachusetts, Maine and Florida and each was very enthusiastic as to the educational and social value of these trips.

For the benefit of those teachers and administrators who may be interested but who are novices, may we encourage you by saying that trips are not too difficult to manage. As in all school projects which involve a series of activities for a large group of students, it does take careful planning and organization. The more completely this is done in advance, the more reasonably sure you may be that emergencies are kept at a minimum. Perhaps our experience may be of some value to others.

The first step in planning our trip was to read travel books on these two cities. Some that we found of value were: *Your Uncle Sam In Washington*, by Myrtle C. Murdock; *New York! New York!*, Laud and Wales; *Guide To America*, Elmer Jenkins; *Washington, City of Destiny*, Alice Rogers Hager; and *Look At America, New York City*, by the editors of *Look*. We also wrote to travel agencies and to experienced tour directors for special "tips" on how to spend our time and money most advantageously. With this information as a background, we listed all of the places of interest in each city which warranted our attention and then tried to fit them into an appropriate time schedule.

Our next step was to decide upon what method of transportation was the most desirable. We concluded that while train travel might seem slightly more expensive, it was a time-saver and it certainly was more comfortable and convenient in transporting a large group. Then, too, the Traveling Passenger Agent for the railroad of our choice proved very helpful not only in helping to plan a "packaged" trip, tailored to meet our requests, but also in accompanying us on the entire tour. He did much to see that everything operated smoothly and according to schedule.

After the itinerary was completed, tentative railroad and hotel reservations were made and costs figured. Then an attractive brochure was prepared by the railway company and we were ready to accept applications for tour members. Although an intensive advertising campaign was planned—teacher announcements in all

social studies classes, radio and newspaper stories, bulletin board displays, library exhibits, morning notice bulletins and films on Washington and New York—we found that the enthusiastic reports from our former trip members proved to be our best selling agency. The response required us to revise our hotel reservations upward several times.

Because of the necessity of making these advance reservations, we had to set a deadline for accepting applications two months in advance of our trip. After that we kept a waiting list to use in case there were any "drop-outs." There were surprisingly few.

We used this two-month interim for conditioning the prospective travelers. On several occasions we called the students together for briefings on what they were going to see. At these meetings we tried to show them the necessity for full cooperation in following rules of good citizenship and fair play. A mimeographed brochure had been prepared giving such information as the date and time schedules, transportation, train service, guides and chaperones, itinerary, costs, hotel accommodations, luggage, schedule for payments, wearing apparel and accessories, conduct, identification cards, etc. Suggestions were made as to what educational preparation should be made and what books and magazine articles were available for this. It was suggested that it should be arranged with teachers for post-trip reports in classes. All forms that were to be filled out by school advisers, students and parents were included. Parents were invited to attend these meetings and to hear the explanation of the brochure.

Since schools to a degree are responsible for the welfare and safety of students on these trips, we prepared forms to be filled out and signed by parents granting permission for the tour and requests for "free time" activities. These, with pledges signed by students, were kept on file. Also, a form was prepared to give to the student to report the completion of the make-up work that he did for each subject missed while on the trip. Insofar as was possible, we felt that it was better to have the student make up his work before the trip began.

The forms giving the name of parents, address and telephone number along with the

one giving "free time" instructions were given to the chaperones to be taken along on the trip to be used in case of an emergency. Fortunately none had to be used for that purpose.

For the convenience of handling the group, students were placed in units of four, since that was the number who would room together in the hotels and sit together on the train. They were permitted to select their own group and to choose one of the four for the group leader. This group leader was to be responsible for the general conduct of the group, see to it that her members were on time for all scheduled tours, report to her chaperon where and with whom each member of her group spent her "free time" and, in general, be a student chaperon. During the trip all instructions as to wearing apparel, changes in schedule, etc., were given to the chaperones and they, in turn, passed on the information through the group leaders.

Six or seven of these units were then assigned to each faculty chaperon. In so far as was possible the boys had a man chaperon and the girls had a woman. Prior to the trip the chaperons had several meetings with their group leaders for the purpose of briefing them on their specific duties and for developing a wholesome rapport.

Also, during this two-month interim, arrangements were made with Washington officials for interviews, courtesy cards, photographs and press notices. For those who requested admission to the theatre, television and radio shows, tickets were procured.

At last the day for our journey, April 30, arrived, and chartered buses took us to Vincennes where we boarded our special eastbound train, all one hundred and sixty-two of us. We made quite a delegation with our four comfortable coaches, two dining cars and an observation car which served as a place to relax with cards, dancing, radio and general conversation. A coke and candy bar provided refreshments. Dinner and the following morning's breakfast were served in grand style with our own printed menus given to us as souvenirs from the railroad company. While the students could mingle freely during the day, at eleven in the evening the lights were dimmed in the coaches and students slept and rested in their assigned places.

Representatives greeted us at the gigantic station at Washington, D. C. and motion pictures were taken of our groups boarding the five chartered sightseeing buses which were our means of transportation while in Washington. As on the train, groups were assigned to each bus and each chaperon accompanied his unit.

The first morning in Washington was spent at the Bureau of Engraving and Printing and at the Capitol Building. After a tour in the latter, we visited the Senate and the House of Representatives and chatted with a few Congressmen with whom we had previous engagements. Photographs were taken on the Capitol steps and were used in newspapers.

At noon we were taken to our hotel to receive room assignments, previously made, and to find that our luggage had preceded us to our rooms. After a delightful luncheon in our private dining room at the hotel, our buses took us to the Library of Congress, Folger Memorial Library and the Supreme Court Building. Later that afternoon we visited the Archives Building and the home of the F.B.I.

Dinner was served at the hotel and then the evening was free. We purposely planned a reasonable amount of free time so that students could pursue their own interests. Since our hotel was located just across the park from the White House, some took that opportunity to take strolls around those grounds and past the Blair House, chatting with the guards on duty. Some went swimming at the Ambassador Hotel and others took taxi rides around the lighted monuments, the airport and along the beautiful Potomac River.

Since this is an account of a trip from a director's viewpoint, I shall not take your time by telling about the beauty of the gleaming marble buildings; the fairyland of parks, trees, flowers and fountains; the impressive monuments; the awe-inspiring historical documents and relics. However, permit me to mention that the "ohs" and "ahs" were never lacking and that, from a teacher's standpoint, the look of reverence and respect reflected on the faces of the students was just as inspiring as the original Constitution or the pure white Dome of the Capitol Building glistening in the spot lights that played upon it each evening.

The next morning on the way to the Smith-

sonian Institute and Museum of Natural History we stopped at the colorful Pan American Building and the Washington Monument, from which vantage point we viewed Major L'Enfant's dream city.

In the afternoon we made a grand tour of the city, passing through parks, wooded areas, past Embassies, hotels, exclusive residential sections and slums. Arlington Cemetery, Lee Mansion, the Pentagon and the National Airport were on our itinerary. The late afternoon was spent at the National Gallery of Art. The evening was "free."

Early the next morning we left Washington on our special train for New York, having breakfast en route. We still were excited over our experiences, such as interviewing John L. Lewis, Senator Taft, General Marshall and other noteworthy officials. Arriving at Jersey City, we ferried across the Hudson River to Manhattan, getting our first breathtaking view of New York's billion dollar skyline. The spectacular Statue of Liberty greeted us from her position in the harbor nearby.

Our hotel was in midtown and in an excellent location for theatres, Fifth Avenue, Radio City and Rockefeller Center. After room assignments were made, we had luncheon in Rockefeller Center and then boarded our special sight-seeing buses for a drive along Fifth Avenue, Park Avenue, Millionaire's Row, Central Park, Columbia University, the Bronx and Harlem. A lecture tour was taken through St. John the Divine Cathedral.

Our first evening was spent strolling along Fifth Avenue to the Empire State Building where we viewed the metropolitan area from the Observation Tower. After a television show later in the evening we returned to our hotel.

The next morning was spent on a yacht, touring completely around Manhattan Island. On it we passed ocean liners, tug boats, fireboats, exclusive apartment houses, fish markets, slums, hospitals, prisons, the new United Nations Building, the Mayor's house and under all of the famous bridges that connect Manhattan with the other boroughs.

After luncheon we went to a matinee at Radio City Music Hall and saw the famous Rockettes in addition to a complete stage show and movie. The evening was "free."

Our time the next morning was devoted to downtown Manhattan and included famous historical sites, civic buildings, Lower East Side slums, the Bowery, the Battery, Wall Street and the financial district. The economics students were especially interested in a lecture tour through the New York Stock Exchange and the Chase National Bank. The latter has the largest collection of rare and unusual monies in the world. Not to be overshadowed, sociology students were amazed and impressed with what they saw that morning in the Bowery, Greenwich Village, Chinatown and the Ghetto.

Later, at noon, many students ate at the unique Automat. The afternoon was free for shopping, subway rides, a big league baseball game, Metropolitan Art Museum, the Museum of Modern Art or for other special interests. The highlight of this day was the gala party which was held at Billy Rose's famous "Diamond Horseshoe." This was a never-to-be-forgotten event with a full course dinner, dancing and an outstanding floor show. As a special treat it happened that a number of people famous in the radio and theatre world were there and the students collected autographs and had chats with some of them.

Our last day in New York was spent at the National Broadcasting Radio and Television Studios. Several of the students were on the programs and a few won prizes. Those enrolled in speech and radio classes found the mechanics of broadcasting most interesting. The early afternoon was spent in last-minute shopping, packing and in visiting a luxury ocean liner and watching it get ready to sail for Bermuda.

We left New York, much to the regret of the entire party, and boarded our special train at Jersey City for our return trip. It proved to be a pleasant repetition of our earlier train trip with three meals being served us en route. The Vincennes railroad platform was crowded with happy and excited parents and friends waiting to greet the as-excited and happy students and I couldn't help thinking what a perfect set-up it was for establishing good public relations for the school.

Much could be written about the merits of having seen places and personalities made famous in history, movies, radio and the news. The trip was planned to cater to government,

history, economics and sociology students but its influence and interests were much more widespread. Art and music students found special treats; household arts students got glimpses of the finest in dress and furniture design and how the former was made and displayed; radio and stage aspirants were given the opportunity of seeing those fields at their best; and many students were encouraged to pursue careers in their chosen vocation or profession.

It was noticeable that the group had a more finished, cosmopolitan air and that they talked of more cultured things on their return trip. They still had the adolescent verve and enthusiasm but their conversation was on a little higher plane. After viewing so many slums and the crowded conditions in Cincinnati, Philadelphia, New York and other large metropolitan areas, many expressed their gratitude for living in a smaller city and their appreciation for their own homes.

The trip was completed at the end of the eighth day but its value and memory continued. When we returned, a "speaker's bureau" was established for those classes that wanted special reports on the trip. This served a two-fold purpose of spreading the valuable information and experiences of the travelers and of giving them practice in radio and public speaking. Also, newswriting students used the material for their school and city papers. Radio students made recordings which will be used in future advertising campaigns. Huge bulletin boards of snapshots, theatre programs, menus, travel folders and other souvenirs were prepared to make the trip more realistic for those students who did not go.

The project was valuable in coordinating the work in the various school departments and in cooperating with other city schools because the upperclassmen of several schools were represented in our group. There may have been rivalry among the schools on the athletic fields but on the trip you couldn't distinguish one from another.

Except for writing "thank you" letters to those who were especially helpful in making the trip so pleasant and for filing forms, itineraries, correspondence, etc., for future reference, the work of the directors was finished.

However, the memory lingers on and one with an active imagination may wonder how many future senators, artists, doctors or social workers may have received their inspiration from that trip.

Yes, we feel that educational travel pays

huge dividends in broadening the horizons of our complex life and in improving our social understanding. We hope that you are of the same opinion. Let's give more high school students that chance! Let's go to Washington and New York next spring!

The Teachers' Page

HYMAN M. BOODISH

Dobbins Vocational Technical School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

"How do other schools compare to mine?"

Did you ever ask yourself the above question? Have you ever wondered about the curricular offerings, experiments, or unusual methods of teaching that may be found in other schools?

I should like to suggest that teachers use this page to write about the interesting things going on in their schools which would be of value to other teachers. To start off, I shall report on some observations I made last term when it was my good fortune to visit a number of private and public secondary schools not within the jurisdiction of my own city. These visits, along with those made to all the high and vocational technical schools in my own city, were part of a special assignment having to do with planning the revision of the social studies course in Philadelphia secondary schools. Specifically the following areas of interest guided my observations and discussions with teachers and other school personnel.

Formal Offerings in Social Studies

1. Number of required and elective subjects
2. Grade placement of subjects
3. Degree of emphasis on different content areas—American History, world history, economics, sociology, psychology, political science, and geography
4. Grade placement of Pennsylvania history
5. Attempt at articulation with lower grades

Unique Experiments or Outstanding Offerings

1. Degree of emphasis on the activity program
2. Special courses
3. Provisions for the slow learner
4. Degree of grouping by ability

GENERAL IMPRESSIONS

The schools visited represented a variety

of types. The private schools were all primarily college preparatory in their emphasis. The public high schools were, for the most part, comprehensive in their offerings. One school, for example, had a separate wing of buildings organized for vocational-technical instruction in both shop and academic or related subjects. The public high schools varied considerably in the degree of emphasis given to college preparatory courses, depending naturally upon the school population and the community in which the school exists.

In the private schools, students were selected on an aptitude basis, so that in the main these institutions were not confronted with the "slow learner" problem to the same degree that other schools are. As is to be expected, even in the private schools there were variations in ability which necessitated some grouping as well as special attention to remedial reading. The private schools made it a strong point to emphasize proper study habits and note-taking as part of the preparation of a student intending to go to college.

Even though these institutions aim at preparing for college, they are vitally concerned also with the total social personality of the individual. This is evident in their varied activity programs and rich elective offerings. It is also reflected in the fine relationship—a large degree of informality and freedom—that exists between the students and the faculty. Pupils seemed to be left a great deal on their own. In two of the private schools, for example, there were no teachers assigned to supervise the cafeteria. Both teachers and pupils ate in the same lunchroom. Some faculty members sat at a separate table; others ate with groups

of students, chatting informally with them. Teachers were naturally depended upon to assume responsibility at any time. Of course, the high selectivity of students makes possible a greater measure of reliance upon student initiative and responsibility.

The public high schools, as indicated, were for the most part comprehensive high schools. The character of the locale, as is to be expected, was reflected in many of the schools. In one high school, for example, the industrial impact of the surrounding community had a direct relationship to the curricular offerings and to the large emphasis on distributive and cooperative part-time employment in the senior year. In some schools strong citizenship support of education was evident in such areas as facilities for athletics and expenditures for books, supplies and teachers' salaries.

FORMAL OFFERINGS IN SOCIAL STUDIES

Course Requirements and Electives

Although all except two schools require at least two years of social studies in grades 10-12, in most of the schools students have three years of social studies. This is made possible by rich elective programs. In all the schools, one year of American history, given chronologically, topically, or in the form of a problem course, is compulsory for graduation. The second year, where required, may generally be selected from a choice of several offerings. For the most part, the tendency in social studies offerings follows this pattern:

Required for Graduation—2 years

10th Grade—Elective:

World history or ancient and medieval history

11th Grade—Required of All:

United States history

11th or 12th Grade—Electives

World history, problems of democracy, modern European history, world geography, social living or human relations courses (elementary psychology, mental health, family relations, et cetera.)

Although there is no direct effort at articulation with the lower grades (one school does have a social studies director or chairman for the junior and senior schools) there are frequent joint meetings between representative teachers of both levels in some of the cities visited. In general, the junior high school pat-

tern for social studies is as follows:

7th grade—World history (very elementary)

8th grade—Early American history

9th grade—Pennsylvania history and civics

(in schools located in Pennsylvania)

Degree of Emphasis on Different Subject Areas

The teaching of Pennsylvania history, where required by law, is generally delegated to the junior high schools, in those grades where American history or civics is taught. In one of the private schools, a separate one-period a week course in Pennsylvania history is required of all students in the 10th grade in addition to the required years of American history. In most of the schools, the subject most offered or required, next to American history, is generally delegated to the 10th grade while European history tends to be concentrated in the 11th grade. The problems course where offered, is generally given in the 12th grade. The contents vary considerably with the school and within the school according to the pupils taking it and the persons teaching it.

In most of the schools, whether or not there existed formal course outlines, much of the organization and content area of all the courses was centered on a basic textbook. Most of the heads of departments as well as most of the teachers expressed strong feelings in support of the theory that *the teacher in the long run is the course*. However, where two or more teachers taught the same subject, they frequently met at the beginning of the term to discuss what areas or topics would be given more or less attention.

The degree of emphasis given to other subject areas—geography, economics, political science (government), and social living courses—did not vary as much as might be expected. The study of local, state and national government and international relations (with emphasis on the U.N.) is covered either in the course in American history or in the problems course. Economics is not treated formally, but as part of such problems as labor, free enterprise, business organization and consumer problems.

The large socio-psychological areas of family relationships, boy-girl relationships, how to get along with people, and mental health, are allocated varying amounts of time in the problems course. In several schools, specifically designed courses, given such titles as "Social

Living" or "Modern Living" were offered as electives in the 11th and 12th grades. Subjects like hygiene and home economics also attempt to cover some of these areas of instruction.

UNIQUE EXPERIMENTS AND OUTSTANDING OFFERINGS

Although individualistic to a degree, not all the schools had unique experiments or course offerings. As already indicated, there was a great deal of similarity among many of the schools. However, here and there, one observed little or big things going on which deserve special note.

A Course in Anthropology

In one of the private schools, for example, a course in anthropology is offered as an elective in the 9th grade. I had an opportunity to talk to the instructor and to observe a class in action. Most of the students were from a select group. The average I.Q. in the school is above 118. However, it was a thrilling experience to have observed the youthful enthusiasm of 9th grade boys and girls discussing critically such concepts as cephalic index, racial superiority, progressive education, and psychometric measurements. When the instructor called attention to the possible fallacy of judging the intelligence of the Australian aborigines by western civilization-made tests, one young boy commented somewhat in this fashion: "Yes, I wonder how we would fare if we were forced to take their tests—living in the jungle." The success of the course, which has been given for many years, is naturally related to the instructor who gives it.

Education of the Spirit

The Bible classes, given once a week (by the English teachers) in the same school is another interesting activity. Though the em-

phasis is the Bible and religion, much of the time, I was informed, is spent on general ethical problems of a social nature.

Related to this emphasis on the spiritual is the practice at another school of having a regular Friends' meeting every other Wednesday. I was informed that for forty minutes (somewhat less time is devoted to this in the lower grades) the students sit in complete silence, unless one is moved to speak. The headmaster and one or two faculty members generally sit on the stage. Though sectarian, the school is open to all creeds. The week before, I learned, a Jewish boy felt moved to talk. He expressed the feeling that this silent period of meditation makes him think seriously of matters he would probably never have considered. Other boys, too, have expressed similar values.

A Service Activity

Probably the most unique activity program conducted in these private schools are the service activities associated with the general service work performed under the auspices of the Society of Friends. Students volunteer to participate in weekend service camps or in full-week service camps. The work consists of rehabilitating dwellings in slum areas and related services to underprivileged people. Each of the schools visited has an adopted school in Europe, with whom students correspond. Some of the schools also have exchange students. The Forum Club I observed in one school had two such students, one from France and one from Norway. In addition to these activities, the three schools conduct a summer service camp program in Europe. This year, the camp planned to have students from three countries, United States, France and Germany.

(To be continued)

Visual and Other Aids

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

Washington Junior High School, Mount Vernon, New York

"FREEDOM — Stalin Style" is the most recent addition to the series of colorful wall posters (5 in all) published by the Institute for American Democracy, a non-profit organization sponsored by representatives of the

Protestant, Catholic, and Jewish faiths. The purpose of the series is to stress principles of democracy, human rights, and sound inter-group relations. Write to the Institute, 212 Fifth Ave., New York 10, N. Y.

The opaque projector can be of great help to teachers in the work. Information about this audio-visual tool, and a series of bulletins on Opaque Projection Practices will be forwarded free if you will write to Charles Beseler Co., 60 Badger Ave., Newark 8, N. J.

The Pan American Coffee Bureau, 120 Wall St., New York City 5, N. Y., an organization under the sponsorship of ten Latin-American nations, will supply the following materials free to teachers; "Coffee—The Story of a Good Neighbor Product," a colorful project booklet for fifth and sixth grades; a student manual and wall chart (26" x 40")—"A Two-Way Street Between the Americas," for the study of Inter-American trade (Jr. and Sr. H. S.); and a group of 6-page illustrated leaflets: "How Coffee Came to America and Its Part in American History"; "The Literary Tradition of Coffee"; "Coffee—A Study in Inter-American Economics"; and "Coffee—A Balanced Botanical Study."

FILMS

Introduction to Foreign Trade. One reel. Sound. Color (\$100), or black and white (\$50). Coronet Films, 65 E. South Water Street, Chicago, Ill.

This film establishes the importance of foreign trade to our economy. Then it presents a general picture of the mechanics of international commerce.

Abraham Lincoln: A Background Study. One and one half reels. Sound. Color (\$150), or black and white (\$75). Coronet Films.

Through presenting the locales, times, and changing environment in which Abraham Lincoln lived, . . . the character, life, and historical significance of the man emerge with clarity and intensity.

Service and Citizenship. One reel. Black and white (\$50). Coronet Films.

Students see that some of the duties a citizen is expected to fulfill are paying taxes, serving on juries, joining community organizations voting at election time, and working together toward the common goal of freedom and peace.

Your Plans. One reel. Black and white (\$50). Coronet Films.

Students see how military service can be successfully incorporated into their preparation for the future.

What's It All About? One reel. Black and white (\$50). Coronet Films.

This film, which uses carefully edited film footage and animation, is designed to acquaint the audience with the background of what their being drafted is all about.

This Is The United Nations—IV. 1951. 10 min. Sound. Black and white. Purchase \$50; rental \$2.50. United Nations Film Distributors Division, 405 E. 42 St., New York 17, N. Y.

This film deals with the U.N. "Fellowship Program" an international system for the exchange of knowledge and skills, bringing them from where they are to where they are needed for solving peace-time problems.

Building for the Nations. 1950. 35 minutes. Sound. Color. Free-loan. U. S. Steel Co., 525 William Penn Place, Pittsburgh 30, Pa.

Highlights of the erection of the structural steelwork for the Secretariat Building of the United Nations Headquarters in New York City are shown.

Our Town Is The World. 1950. 11 minutes. Sound. Black and white. Purchase \$30, rental \$1.50. National Film Board of Canada, 1270 Avenue of the Americas, New York 20, N. Y.

Shows the story of friction between two groups in an average Canadian town, reproducing in miniature the problems of national rivalry facing the U.N. and illustrating the necessity for tolerance between individuals and rivals.

The United Nations in World Dispute. 1950. 21 minutes. Sound. Black and white. Purchase or rental. United World Films, Inc., 1445 Park Ave., New York, N. Y.—Produced by the U. S. Dept. of the Army.

Reviews four major disputes that since 1945 have threatened world peace—Indonesia, Palestine, India, and Korea—and demonstrates how the U.N. attacked each one.

For All The World's Children. 1950. 30 minutes. Sound. Black and white. Rental \$5. United Nations Film Division, 405 E. 42 St., New York 17, N. Y. Produced by Warner-Pathe News in cooperation with the U.S. Committee for the U.N. International Children's Emergency Fund.

Portrays the worldwide activities of the UNICEF, including the distributions of supplies from one side of the world to the other.

Of Human Rights. 1950. 20 minutes. Sound. Black and white. Purchase \$100, rental \$4. United Nations Film Division.

An incident involving economic and racial prejudice among children is used to dramatize the importance of bringing to the attention of the peoples of the world their rights as human beings as set forth in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, proclaimed by the U.N. General Assembly in Dec., 1948.

Big Ditch of Panama. 10 minutes. Long term lease. Teaching Film Custodians, 25 W. 43 St., New York 18, N. Y.

Film depicts the development and significance of the Panama Canal.

Building the Panama Canal. 11 minutes. Sale or rent. Knowledge Builders, 625 Madison Ave., New York 22, N. Y.

The building of the canal and operating its locks is shown, including the trip through the waterway itself.

Panama: Crossroads of the Western World. 10 minutes. Sale. Coronet Films, Coronet Building, Chicago, Ill.

Film shows the influences of travel and trade upon Panamanian culture and economy.

Panama. 10 minutes. Sale. Dudley Pictures Corp., 501 Madison Ave., New York, N. Y.

Gives the historical background, modern Panama City, cattle raising, agriculture and industries.

Earth and Its Peoples. 20 minutes, Black and white. Purchase \$100 each film; lease-payment plan available. United World Films, 1445 Park Ave., New York 29, N. Y.

This is a series of 36 films which portray people's ways of life in different regions of the earth.

Group I contains seven films. The theme is Home-life Around the World. The films correlate with children's first studies of peoples in other lands.

Group II has fifteen films that form a unit of related regions in the Americas—Canada, U. S., Mexico, Central and South America. This group correlates with middle grade studies of geography and the peoples of the Americas.

Group III has fourteen films that correlate with studies of regions in the Eastern Hemi-

sphere—Europe, Asia, Australia, Africa. Emphasis is on the people's economic activities and on use and conservation of natural and human resources.

FILMSTRIPS AND SLIDES

Panama Canal Zone, General. 47 frames. Sale. Society for Visual Education, 1345 W. Diversey Parkway, Chicago 14, Ill.

Canal locks, railroads, docks at Cristobal, native fishing villages, jungle huts and street scenes in Panama City are shown.

A Sacred Trust. 1950. 62 frames. Silent with script. Black and white. Free. United Nations Filmstrip Distribution Unit, 405 E. 42 St., New York, N. Y.

Illustrates the aims and hopes of the trusteeship Council of the U.N. Shows the life of the inhabitants of trust territories and indicates that the aims of the U.N. Charter were to promote progressive development toward self-government or independence and the general welfare of inhabitants in these dependent areas.

Structure for Peace—How the United Nations Works. 1950. 78 frames. Silent. Separate script and teaching guide. Free-loan. United Nations Filmstrip Distribution Unit.

Explains the structure and functions of the five organs—the General Assembly, the Security Council, the Economic and Social Council, the Trusteeship Council, and the International Court of Justice, as well as the Secretariat. Each organ is presented in a separate chapter, with diagrams, photographs, and drawings.

United Nations Charter—Its Structure and Functions. 1950. 75 frames. Silent. Black and white \$300. Current History Films, 226 E. 22 St., New York, N. Y. Separate script available.

Descriptions of the aims, organization, and operation of the U.N. by means of charts, drawings, and documentary photos.

United Nations Exhibit. 1950. 54 frames. Silent. Black and white. \$1.00. Bureau of Audio-Visual Instruction, Extension Division, Univ. of Nebraska, Lincoln 8, Neb.

Shows Dale Johnson, high school student, as he visits the U.N. traveling exhibit when it came to Lincoln. Teacher's guide.

News and Comment

R. T. SOLIS-COHEN

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Cooperstown, New York, Village of Museums

Some weeks ago, Leonard Lyons, the columnist, told of accompanying his son, a baseball enthusiast, on a plane flight to the Cooperstown Baseball Museum. Cooperstown is famous as the birthplace of baseball, a sport which is now seventy-five years old.

The Baseball Museum includes among its exhibits the uniforms and uniform lockers of Babe Ruth and Lou Gehrig, portraits and records of famous players and souvenirs of the game. Some of the last mentioned are balls, bats, uniforms and gloves worn by well-known players. Among the pictures are those showing the various Presidents of the United States, from Harding to Truman, pitching out the first ball on opening day.

Beside the Baseball Museum, Cooperstown also boasts a Farmers' Museum and the James Fenimore Cooper house overlooking the lake.

The former is housed in a large stone building that originally was a dairy barn. The collection of farm implements in the Farmers' Museum is arranged in accordance with the seasons, beginning with those first used in the spring and ending with the harvesting equipment. This Museum also contains a completely furnished country kitchen. Incidentally, concerning old fashioned kitchens, William S. Powell (Editor of *History News in American Heritage*, Fall, 1951) says:

"Kitchens seldom are thought of as places of particular interest and a short while ago very few museums would have been in the least concerned about them. Just now, however, the story is quite different. Recent reports from the Detroit Historical Society, the Maryland Historical Society, and the 'Hall of History' of the North Carolina Department of Archives and History show that at least three old-fashioned kitchens are making a comeback. Each of these historical museums either has set up or has collected material and is drawing up plans for a completely furnished kitchen 'period.'"

Other exhibits in the Farmers' Museum show the tools of the cobbler, the carpenter, the

harness-maker and even the cooper. Labor-saving devices and inventions of the pioneer settlers in New York State are represented in the Museum's collections: e.g., a practical washing machine, a butter churn operated by means of a dog running on a treadmill, a churn mounted on rockers with a seat built on each end for the small children of the household to seesaw while the butter was being made.

Near the Farmers' museum, the New York Historical Association, the sponsor of the project, is building an early American village. In it are the store, the smithy, an early law office, a doctor's office, a pharmacy and a print shop. There is also a one-room school house with its name-scarred desks, wood burning stove, wooden water bucket with tin cup, slates, McGuffey's Readers and wall map showing the United States as it was in 1845.

Cooperstown has not neglected the memory of one of its famous sons, James Fenimore Cooper. Fenimore House has been built on the site of the author's home, beside Otsego Lake, the "Glimmerglass" of the *Leatherstocking Tales*. The house is an excellent reproduction of the domestic architecture of the period and its furnishings are likewise typical—heavy drapes, thick carpeting, and Chippendale furniture. In one of the rooms the novelist's original manuscripts are preserved. In another is the Alexander Hamilton-Aaron Burr correspondence which led to their duel in which Hamilton was killed. (*Buick Magazine*, Oct., 1951)

Cooperstown can be reached by car by driving ten miles south on Route 80 from a main east-west highway, U.S. 20. The town has some good hotels and restaurants beside being itself an unusually appealing spot, according to Bill Cartwright of the *New York Sunday Times* (July 29, 1951).

The Team Behind the Plow

The team consists of the farmer, the manufacturer and the steelman. In an illustrated article in *Steelways* (July, 1951), George Laycock explains that to keep his complicated machines in good working order, the modern

farmer has had to become a cross between a mechanic and an engineer. From his experience with machines, the farmer is able to supply the manufacturers with practical ideas for improving machines.

Many varieties of machines are required for there are machines for special jobs. For example, there is a machine for digging, cleaning, grading and bagging potatoes. Another machine consists of crawler type tractors to pull giant plows that turn a furrow six feet deep. This brings to the surface flood-buried or wind-buried topsoil.

However, most progress has been made in the use of ordinary, workaday machines, such as tractors, mowers, rakes, loaders, manure spreaders, planters, cultivators, corn pickers, combines and other standard machines.

The steelman's contribution to the team is the improvement of iron castings which are being made stronger, and more resistant to shattering. Wherever possible steel is being substituted for iron, because of its lesser weight and greater durability.

Miracle in the Stockyards

In the same issue of *Steelways*, Robert West describes the products and by-products of the meat-packing business. A graphic diagram indicates the progress of the porker from the hook in the abattoir through the intermediate stages of meat, bones, blood, hides, hooves, glands and viscera to the final stage of end products. The last include: fresh, canned, and smoked meat, bone lime, oil, grease, white grease; buttons, blood meal, fertilizer; leather goods and bristles; mucilage, glue and pig's foot oil; and the pharmaceuticals—liver extract, thrombin, insulin, acth, etc.

The processing of the skinless hot dog is described from the beginning to the end of its journey through a steel maze of machines which resembles a Rube Goldberg invention.

Globes

Laurence Critchell (*Steelways*, July, 1951) describes how global maps are made. A steel press shapes steel disks into hemispheres which are then cemented together and expertly covered with "gores" or map segments. The surface is then lacquered.

Kit for Living

It seems as if each day brings news of some

novel and remarkable project initiated by the United Nations to meet some dire need. On October 7, 1951, the *New York Sunday Times Magazine Section* published an article by Ruth Crawford together with a picture of the United Nations midwife kit, a modern and compact satchel issued by the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund to help the midwives upon whose ministrations the larger part of the world depends.

Each kit contains the following message to the midwife in her own language:

"This midwifery kit has been purchased by the U.N.I.C.E.F. from money donated by people from all parts of the world. It is given to you to help you in your work as a midwife. With U.N.I.C.E.F. hopes that you will be able to take good care of the mothers of your community and their new-born babies."

The kit "is a 15 to 16 pound canvas 'knapsack,' made of two detachable parts, each fitted with essentials." The latter are items that money cannot buy, particularly in the rural areas of Asia. Among the articles packed in these kits are thermometers, syringes, baby scales, needles, safety pins, thread and cloth, a rubber apron, a pair of rubber gloves, a plastic blower filled with D.D.T. powder, a tiny sandglass, a flashlight to be strapped to the midwife's head, silver nitrate, an eye-dropper, capsules for malarial patients, and other medicines not easily available in inaccessible places.

Specific instructions are included, warning the midwife never to put a thermometer in hot water; to use the D.D.T. powder for spraying her hair, scalp, body and clothes and the patients' bedclothes; and to use the sandglass, which does not get out of order as does a watch, for counting a pulse.

U.N.I.C.E.F. also provides milk for Thailand's children—school luncheons, shoes, and anti-T.B. vaccine (picture Sheet 23, issued by U.N. Department of Public Information). The same sheet shows a picture of a small Algerian child standing bravely while a nurse introduces a hypodermic needle under the skin of his upper arm.

U.N. Literacy Campaign

The literacy campaign in Africa was

launched in fulfilment of UNESCO resolutions urging better education for the underprivileged peoples.

Picture Sheet 22 (Issued by the U.N. Department of Public Information) illustrates the campaign in Liberia, an independent republic, founded by American Negro freedmen. The country contains a large tribal population, who cannot read or write and know no English—Liberia's official language.

Liberia's President, William Tubman, initiated the effort to reduce adult illiteracy. He is being assisted by teachers, students, missionaries and visiting experts, among whom is Dr. Frank Laubach, the noted world literacy expert. He has devised a visual method for teaching eight Liberian languages which, with one exception, have never had any written script. For each language, thousands of sets of lessons and pictures were printed, for free distribution at Government expense. Dr. Laubach is shown with a pictorial chart with the Bassa Language and English. These charts are easily understood and are distributed in the villages. They are used in the open air classes for adults which have become the most important part of the campaign. In the literacy campaign educational letter card games are encouraged as a "painless" way of learning.

Building Democracies in Africa

A former member of the United Nations Secretariat, Mr. Carr-Gregg, now the news editor of the British Information Service in New York City, relates how the British are assisting the illiterate citizens of the Gold Coast and Nigeria to learn the procedures of registration and voting on their road to self-government. (*The Survey*, Oct., 1951.)

Africa is called "Tomorrow's Continent" because of its abundance of material resources and its human potential. This continent has a population about equal in size to that of the United States. Africans on the Gold Coast are beginning to demand a voice in its government.

Great Britain recognized this force and is cooperating with the natives, permitting them to have self government short of actual Dominion status within the British Commonwealth. Africans in the British Gold Coast dependency now have the responsibility of governing.

How did this drastic change come to pass?

In 1948 the "Disturbances" occurred—fear, violence, strikes and riots.

The British set up a Commission of Inquiry to discover the basic causes of the "Disturbances." The Commission recommended drastic constitutional reform with wide African participation in the central government and the appointment of an all-African committee responsible for drafting the report concerning the specific operations of the government. The report was completed in August, 1949, and accepted by the British.

In order to transfer the power of government to the democratically elected African leaders, it was first necessary before Election Day to teach democracy and the procedure of voting. This was accomplished by means of one hundred educated Africans who had been intensively trained in advance.

These instructors were organized as fifteen teams. Each team was equipped with mobile units—trucks with camping gear, movie projectors, literature and public address amplifiers. Upon arrival in a village, the unit played recorded music to attract a crowd. Then its leader stated his purpose. Next he played a recording in the dialect of the region which described the election in simple terms and how a resident could register as a voter. The African instructors were obliged to speak in the local vernacular and to distribute pamphlets in one of the eight principal languages. These mobile units also showed movies. Registration was the next step and then voting.

In areas where the population is illiterate, people were prevented from voting twice by staining the voter's right thumb with purple blue as he handed over his marked ballot. As each entered the polls, his right thumb was examined before he was given a ballot. In order to permit illiterates to vote secretly, ballots were marked not only with the names of the candidates but also with pictures of the ancient Gold Coast symbols, the elephant, the fish, and the cockerel.

The election was a victory for the strongly nationalist Convention People's Party, whose slogan is: "We prefer self-government with danger to servitude in tranquility." The Party's leader is now senior ranking African Minister in the new government.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

DAVID W. HARR

Head, Department of Social Studies, Abraham Lincoln High School, Philadelphia

Studies in Leadership. Edited by Alvin W. Gouldner. New York: Harper Brothers, Publishers, 1950. Pp. 736. \$5.00.

In *Studies in Leadership* edited by Alvin W. Gouldner we are presented with an unusually comprehensive work on leadership. The book is divided into five sections—(1) "Types of Leaders," (2) "Leadership and its Group Settings," (3) "Authoritarian and Democratic Leaders," (4) "The Ethics and Technics of Leadership," and (5) "Affirmations and Resolutions." Within each of these sections is included articles by social scientists noted for their research work in such areas as sociology, psychology, political science, cultural anthropology, and philosophy.

The first section describes with clarity bureaucrats, agitators, intellectuals, and what the author terms informal leaders. All four are examined with the discussion and criticism of bureaucratic structure and personality being especially informative.

Section two is devoted to the types of situations and structures present in social classes, minority groups, and political groups. The analysis of social classes includes a study of leadership and problems of leadership as found in the business class, the working class, and the middle class. Examined as minority groups are the Jewish people, the Italian-Americans, and the Negroes.

In section three there is a contrasting of democratic with authoritarian leadership, special attention being given to the control of the latter.

The fourth section deals, not only with further means of handling authoritarian leaders, but also of encouraging democratic leadership. Emphasis is also given to barriers encountered by leaders and their efforts to overcome these barriers.

Dr. Gouldner's introduction to this volume is as excellent as the articles presented. He has given special attention to the forms, techniques, and problems of leadership.

Studies in Leadership is one of the most

comprehensive and professional collections on the subject to appear in the past few years. The book would serve as an excellent text for such sociology courses as community leadership, and could be used to great advantage as supplementary material in numerous other social science courses.

EDWARD M. BEARD

University of Miami
Miami, Florida

Twilight in South Africa. By Henry Gibbs. New York: Philosophical Library, 1950. Pp. 288. \$4.50.

This book is the work of a perceptive journalist who spent considerable time in South Africa. It is his report of the basic problems confronting that land. The book makes compelling but melancholy reading.

Africa is important to the western world. It is one of the richest sources of raw materials yet largely untouched; it lies directly across the line of communication between the centers of strength of the west and the Indian peoples and their Asiatic neighbors. Its loss to the west would be irreparable. What goes on in that continent affects the balance of power between east and west in a fundamental manner.

Africa is a black man's continent. The whites of Africa are in a hopeless minority, even in the regions of their greatest number. If we believe in the Lincolnian dictum that a land and its institutions belong to the people who inhabit it, then sooner or later the destiny of the continent must be entrusted to the African native.

But the present government of the Union of South Africa, that of the Nationalist party headed by Prime Minister Malan, is dedicated not only to the maintenance of white supremacy in the Union, but even to its reinforcement. The potentialities for trouble making in the policies of the present government and in the attitudes of those who support that government are limitless. The issues of race in South

Africa today affect not only that country, not only Africa, but the balance of power between democracy and communism in the entire world. The appeal of communism to the oppressed majority in Africa will be overwhelming unless there occurs some democratic solution of the racial problem.

It is the unhappy job of the author of *Twilight in South Africa* to record the circumstances that appear to make any possibility of a democratic solution of the race issue most unlikely. In a world full of trouble spots, he gives substantial reason for the belief that South Africa is one pregnant with infinite mischief.

DONALD C. GORDON

University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland

A History of Philosophical Systems. Edited by Vergilius Ferm. New York: Philosophical Library, 1950. Pp. xvi, 642. \$6.00.

In the forty-seven chapters of this valuable book forty-one eminent professors (37 from the U.S., 2 from India, and one each from Canada and Germany) present in concise terms the history and essence of the world's great philosophical systems. There is no other book quite like it. The emphasis is upon periods and main patterns of thought and it seeks broad characterizations rather than detailed analysis. By "systems" is meant the general trend or course of thought of a particular time, school, or group of thinkers. Besides the general aim of presenting the broad outlines of philosophical systems in their historical perspective, one specific aim has been to reach students who are already acquainted with philosophy and may be moving in the direction of a "major" in the field or planning to enter upon graduate studies in philosophy.

The scope of the volume is immense. After competent historical summaries of the older points of view in philosophy (Hindu, Zoroastrian, Buddhist, Chinese, Ancient Jewish, Greek, Hellenistic, Roman, Early Christian and Islamic thought patterns), the mediaeval, modern, and recent schools and systems are given clear and terse exposition. The classification here shifts largely from names indicating places and persons (Chinese Philosophy, Platonism, Alexandrian Philosophy, etc.) to

names indicating content and logical method (Scholasticism, Rationalism, Empiricism, Dialectical Materialism, Positivism, Personalism, Phenomenology, Pragmatism, etc.). Many of the chapters on recent developments in philosophy are of special value (Existentialism, Contemporary Thomism, Logical Positivism, Semantics, Philosophy of the Sciences, Recent Schools of Ethics, Philosophies of History, Philosophies of Culture, etc.).

Though an attempt to compass this exceedingly wide range of subject matter in one volume might well have resulted in dry and even sterile summarizations, this is seldom the case. The expositions are usually not only authoritative and reasonably thorough, but intriguing, not to say enticing to the exploring mind, and just leisurely enough to give many chapters a refreshingly unhurried quality, as though discussion of implications and ramifications were being everywhere invited. This is a real excellence in any book, and because of the general need of dispatch, it surprises one here.

Valuable bibliographies are appended to each chapter. They increase the book's value to teachers as well as students. Indeed, no teacher of philosophy can fail to derive benefit from this volume at two points: definitions of the *essence* of philosophical systems and the framing of large *perspectives* that will enlighten beginning students. These values far offset any errors and shortcomings to be noted here and there.

Final excellencies are the uniform pace and unity of tone throughout.

JOHN B. NOSS

Franklin and Marshall College
Lancaster, Pennsylvania

The Hebrew Impact on Western Civilization. Edited by Dagobert D. Runes. New York: Philosophical Library, 1951. Pp. xiv, 922. \$10.00.

From the standpoint of "cultural pluralism," this is a remarkably useful book, supplanting several others approaching this field by its diligent survey of contributions that the Jew has made to American Democracy, sociology, political science, public office, social service, modern science and medicine, the Middle Ages, music, western art, the dance, literature, drama,

theatre and film, journalism, explorations, military strategy, the law, western religion and philosophy. Each chapter has been prepared by a specialist, and we note here such well-known names as those of L. L. Bernard, Vergilius Ferm, Maurice J. Karpf, Abraham I. Katsh, Kurt F. Leidecker, Paul Nettl, and William B. Ziff. In short, this is the best informative handbook on the role that the Jew has played in ancient as well as recent history. We regret that the editor, with his varied and rich experiences as a publisher and editor of many distinguished volumes, has not seen fit to write at least a chapter—in addition to the Preface.

The book, furthermore, needs a definite explanation of the relation of the numberless contributions of the Jew from the standpoint of the "sociology of knowledge." Granting that all these contributions have been made by Jews, have they been accomplished by them simply because they have been Jews? To put this differently: how many of the Jewish doctors, who have made contributions to medicine, did set out to make them as Jews, or as good physicians, and what have been the "other" environmental factors which enabled them to be "good" physicians, as well as Jews?

These theoretical considerations are a problem which have confronted nearly all the books of this kind; Runes' volume is, therefore, suffering from a dilemma which needs to be solved in order to make contributions of this kind more effective.

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

University of Bridgeport
Bridgeport, Connecticut

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Norwegian-American Studies and Records. Volume XVI. Theodore C. Blegen, Editor. St. Paul, Minnesota: The North Central Publishing Company, 1950. Pp. VI, 218. \$2.50.

This volume is devoted to the many-sided story of Norwegian-American Life on the Pacific Coast.

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A novel which all teachers of the social studies will enjoy reading.

American City Government and Administration. By Austin F. MacDonald. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1951. Pp. xxxii, 699. \$5.00. Fifth Edition.

This present volume reflects the changing patterns of municipal government in the United States.

The American's Government. By John W. Manning. Chicago, Illinois: Wheeler Publishing Company, 1950. Pp. xxii, 507. \$1.80.

Organization of material is excellent.

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Presents story of immigration and deals with problems arising from the variety of national backgrounds.

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